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EDINBURGH:

Printed by ALEX. CHAPMAN & Co.

Sold by ARCHIBALD CONSTABLE, High Street.

And by the principal Bookſellers in Scotland.

NEW PATENTS.

Mr Zachariah Barrat's Patent for a Mill that is portable, and may be wrought by Wind, Water, or Horſes.

The peculiarities of this mill are, that it is ſmaller or greater in ſize at the pleaſure of the mechaniſt; runs upon caſtors, employs a crown-wheel, which, by three notched orbits, one ſtill at ſome diſtance within another, gives motion to the mill-ſhaft, and is fitted by a ſlight alteration in the machinery, ſuch as any workman may eaſily conceive, to be moved either by ſails, horſes, or water. It may be fitted up with ſufficient convenience at the gable end of a barn. In other reſpects, its machinery is not eſſentially different from that of a common mill.

Mr Edward Walker's (of Rathbone place, Mary-le-bonne, Middleſex) Patent for a Portable Stove, or Kitchen, for dreſſing Victuals.

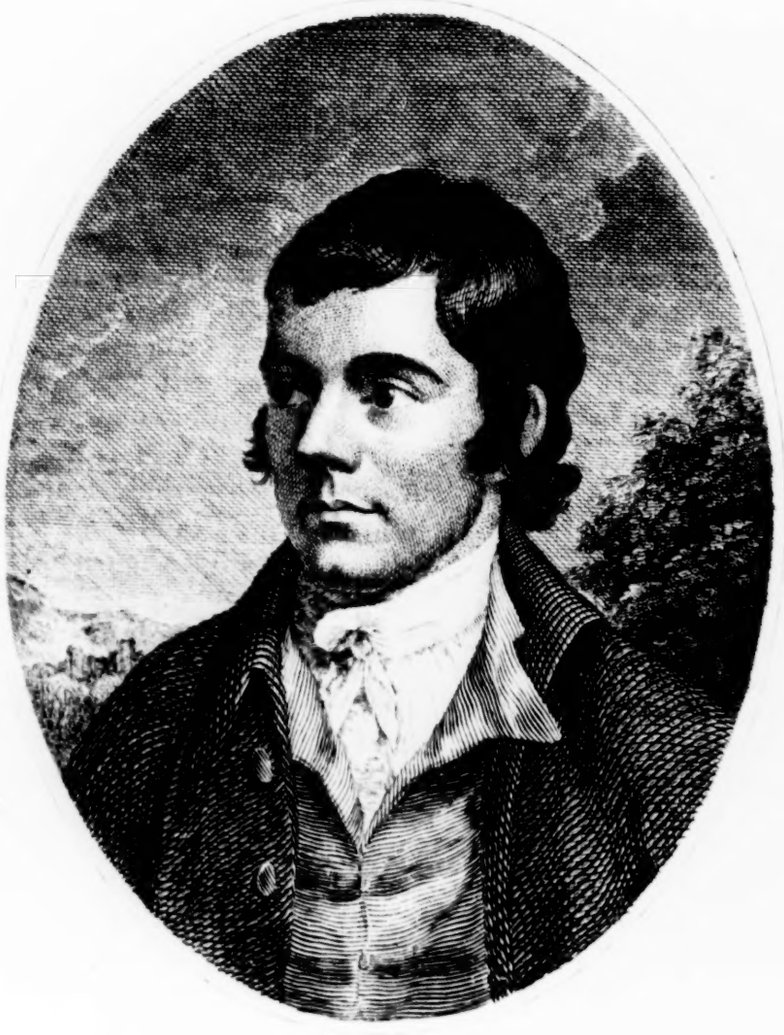
Mr Walker's portable kitchen is a conſtruction of caſt or wrought iron, in a ſquare or oblong-ſquare form. It has, at the middle of its front, a fire-place, with an aſh-pit beneath, and for the conveyance of the ſmoke, a funnel above. A door ſhuts up the fire, while the kitchen is in uſe. In a cloſet on one ſide of the fire, is a convenience for roaſting meat, conſiſting of two ſpits, with racks, &c. On the oppoſite ſide of the fire is another cloſet, for baking. The cover or top of this apparatus maybe uſed as a broiling plate, or may ſuſtain a pot or kettle for boiling. The whole apparatus is cloſe on all ſides. At each end is a door for the admiſſion and removal of the bread and meat to be baked or roaſted. The ſpits are turned by a ſmoke-jack which is fixed in the funnel.

For camps, barracks, hunting excurſions, and every occaſion in which meat is not to be had otherwiſe than cold or dreſſed in the open air, or in huts dirty to loathſomeneſs, the uſe of ſuch a kitchen as this muſt be highly eligible. Pity but it could be made of lighter materials, ſo as to be more eaſily portable in travelling. It would be exceedingly ſerviceable to perſons journeying through Spain or Portugal, or in the wilds of America.

Mr Spencer (of Duffield in Derbyſhire) has got a patent for a new Method of making horſe-ſhoe nails.

Mr Benjamin Hawkins (of Red Lion ſtreet, Clerkenwell, Middleſex, London) has got a patent for a new Floating Mill, to be worked by Tides or Currents of Water, for grinding all ſorts of grain, &c.

Mr Thomas Germans has got a patent for a new Method of Effecting the Rotatory Motion [illegible] Wheeled Carriages.



Robt Burns

THE

SCOTS MAGAZINE,

For OCTOBER 1801.

MEMOIRS of ROBERT BURNS,
The Ayrſhire Poet.

With an Elegant Engraving.

WE took occaſion, ſoon after the untimely fate of this enchanting, but unfortunate poet, to give ſome account of his life and writings*. While we here preſent our readers, with a well engraven portrait, we ſhall endeavour to bring to their recollection, ſome of the leading features of this extraordinary genius.

It is univerſally known, that the father of Burns, was firſt a hired labourer, and afterwards a ſmall farmer in the vicinity of Ayr. The education of the bard, correſponded with the ſtation of his parents. The reading of Engliſh, with a little writing and arithmetic at the pariſh ſchool, was all the learning that was intended for Burns, or that his ſituation could procure. His genius, however, ſoon began to expand, and his paſſion for books daily encreaſed. This, in a ſhort time, raiſed his mind above the level of the mean peaſant: he became an enthuſiaſtic admirer of the beautiful and ſublime.

The practice, the laudable practice, ſo univerſal amongſt the Scottiſh peaſantry, of making their children frequently read the books of ſcripture, and get large portions of the Pſalms of David by heart, is conſidered by the biographers of Burns, to have had conſiderable influence in exciting poetical efforts.

In a letter written by himſelf, giving an account of his life, after deſcribing the hardſhips the family laboured under, he ſays, "This "kind of life, the cheerleſs gloom "of a hermit, with the unceaſing "toil of a galley ſlave, brought "me to my ſixteenth year, a little "before which period, I firſt com-"mitted the ſin of Rhyme."

Burns became a poet, but ſtill his circle of acquaintance was confined to thoſe of his own ſphere. He was, however, diſtinguiſhed among his companions for extraordinary intelligence, good ſenſe and penetration. His mind was mature, and well ſtored with ſuch knowledge, as lay within his reach.

The genius of Burns, could not ly long concealed; having got admiſſion into the fraternity of Free Maſons at Ayr, he attracted the notice of ſeveral gentlemen, better able to judge of his powers. This ſoon made him look upon himſelf, as a favourite of the Muſes, and gave birth to ſeveral Maſonic ſongs, and epigrams.

His deſcription of himſelf, at this period of his *natural career*, if we may ſo term it, is truly ſtriking. "Abandoned of aim or view in life, with a ſtrong appetite for ſociability, as well from native hilarity, as from a pride of obſervation and remark; a conſtitutional melancholy or hypochondria, that made me fly ſolitude; add to theſe incentives to ſocial life, my reputation for bookiſh knowledge,

* See our Number for January 1797, p. 3.

a certain wild logical talent, and, a ſtrength of thought, ſomething like the rudiments of good ſenſe, and it will not ſeem ſurpriſing, that I was generally a welcome gueſt where I viſited. But, far beyond all other impulſes of my heart, was *un penchant a l'adorable moitice du genre humain.* My heart was completely tender, and was eternally lighted up by ſome goddeſs or other. At the plough, ſcythe, or reap hook, I feared no competitor; and thus, I ſet abſolute want at defiance, and as I never cared farther for my actual labours, than while I was in actual exerciſe, I ſpent the evenings in the way after my own heart."

When Burns came to Edinburgh, he was in a new world, as he himſelf expreſſes it, and every thing was new to him.

The very flattering reception which he met with, from perſons of rank and faſhion, naturally had the effect of taking him out of his ſphere, and changing his habits of thinking. His ſocial diſpoſition, which he ſays, was without bounds or limits, kept him in a continual round of diſſipation. To this cauſe chiefly, many have attributed his after misfortunes and diſcontentedneſs with his ſtation. The following anecdote, however, ſhows, that Burns even then, retained a high ſenſe of honour and manly virtue. He had felt a ſtrong attachment to a young lady in Edinburgh, and was expreſſing to an intimate friend (from whom we had the account) his admiration, partiality, in ſhort, love for this lady. His friend knew his previous attachment for Jane, and his engagement to her. He reminded Burns of theſe, and ſtated to him, the conſequences of indulging and foſtering a paſſion for another. Burns had been carryed away by his attachment, and from the career of pleaſure, and buſtle of life he was engaged in, had never ſeriouſly thought of his ſituation. Struck at what he now heard, as with a ſhock of electricity, after a ſhort pauſe, he turned ſuddenly to his friend, gave him a hearty ſlap upon the ſhoulder, ſaying, 'you are right, you are an honeſt fellow, 'll follow your advice.' The ſequel of his hiſtory, ſhows, that he did ſo.

The following letters written to a friend after he was ſettled in the country, are worthy of being preſerved.

Ellifland, 6th January 1789.

"Many happy returns of the ſeaſon to you, my dear Sir! May you be comparatively happy, up to your comparative worth, among the ſons of men; which wiſh would, I am ſure, make you one of the moſt bleſt of the human race.

Let me quote you my two favourite paſſages, which though I have repeated them ten thouſand times, ſtill they rouſe my manhood, and ſteel my reſolution like inſpiration.

——On Reaſon build Reſolve,
That column of true majeſty in man.
Young.

Hear, Alfred, hero of the State,
Thy Genius Heaven's high will declare;
The triumph of the truly great
Is never, never to deſpair!
Is never to deſpair!
Maſque of Aſtræt.

But to change the theme, I am ſtill catering for Johnſon's publication; and among others, I have bruſhed up the following old favourite ſong a little, with a view to your worſhip. I have only altered a word here and there; but if you like the humour of it, we ſhall think of a ſtanza or two to add to it.

O Robin ſhure in hairſt,
I ſhure wi' him;
Ne'er a heuk I had,
Still I ſtack by him.
Fal la', &c.

As I gaed up to Dunſe,
To warp a web o' plaiden,
At his daddie's yet
Wha met me but Robin.
O was na Robin bold,
Tho, I was a Cotter,
Play'd me ſic a trick
And me the Eller's dochter.
O Robin promiſ'd me
A' my winter-victual;
Fient haet he had but three
Goose-feathers and a whittle.

In November following, having been appointed Exciſeman, and ſettled in his farm, he thus writes.

Elliſland, 1ſt November 1789.

My Dear Friend,

I had written you long ere now, could I have gueſſed where to find you; for I am ſure you have more good ſenſe than to waſte the precious days of vacation time, in the dirt of buſineſs and Edinburgh.—Wherever you are, God bleſs you, and lead you not into temptation, but deliver you from evil!

I do not know if I have informed you, that I am now appointed to an exciſe diviſion, in the middle of which my houſe and farm lie. In this I was extremely lucky. Without ever being an expectant, as they call their journeymen exciſemen, I was directly planted down to all intents and purpoſes, an officer of exciſe, there to flouriſh and bring forth fruits, worthy of repentance. I know how the word, Exciſeman, or ſtill more opprobrious, Gauger, will ſound in your ears. I too, have ſeen the day, when my auditory nerves would have felt very delicately on this ſubject, but a wife and children are things, which have a wonderful power in blunting theſe kind of ſenſations. Fifty pounds a year for life, and a proviſion for widows and orphans, you will allow, is no bad ſettlement for a poet.

You need not doubt, that I find ſeveral very unpleaſant and diſagreeable circumſtances in my buſineſs; but I am tired with, and diſguſted at the language of complaint againſt the evils of life. Human exiſtence in the moſt favourable ſituations, does not abound with pleaſures, and has its inconveniences and ills; capricious, fooliſh man, miſtakes theſe inconveniences and ills, as if they were the peculiar property of his particular ſituation; and hence that eternal fickleneſs, that love of change which has ruined, and daily does ruin many a fine fellow, as well as many a blockhead; and is almoſt without exception, a conſtant ſource of diſappointment and miſery.

So far from being diſſatisfied with my preſent lot, I earneſtly pray the Great Diſpoſer of events, that it may never be worſe, and I think I can lay my hand on my heart, and ſay, "I ſhall be content."

The progreſſive ſteps of his literary career, have been minutely detailed by his learned and elegant biographer.

It was remarkable of Burns, that upon a near approach in converſation, he never diſappointed the higheſt ideas that had been formed of him, from a peruſal of his writings. His talents for converſation, for juſt remark and diſcernment of character, were perhaps even more wonderful than his poetical talents. From a review of his works and conduct, the character of Burns, will appear to be that of an honeſt, proud, warm-hearted man, of high paſſions, ſound underſtanding, and a vigorous and excurſive imagination. He was never known to deſcend to any act of deliberate meanneſs: and he retained many reſpectable friends, even to the laſt.

It may be doubted, whether any poet of the preſent age has exerciſed a greater power over the minds of his readers; and he has excited a ſort of homage, which is never paid but to original genius a—crowd of imitators.

GENERAL HUTCHINSON.

THIS General, under whoſe conduct the campaign in Egypt has terminated in a manner ſo honourable to the character of the Britiſh arms, is the ſon of the Right Hon. John Hely Hutchinſon, late Provoſt of Trinity College, Dublin—a man equally diſtinguiſhed by his talents, his ambition, and the high offices he held in the adminiſtration of Ireland.

Being the younger brother of a numerous family, he ſeemed, early deſtined to be the author of his own fortune, and no exertion was ſpared to bring him forward into public life with every advantage. He received the elements of his claſſical education at Eton ſchool, and after remaining there the uſual number of years, he returned to the Univerſity of Dublin for the completion of his ſtudies.

At an early period he diſcovered a partiality for a military life, and in his 19th year he was appointed an officer in the 18th regiment of dragoons. He afterwards ſerved in different regiments of foot, firſt in the 67th, and then in the 77th, Highlanders. No pains were ſpared to qualify him for command, and for this purpoſe he was ſent to ſtudy tactics at the military Academy of Straſburgh, under the beſt French maſters.

Soon after the commencement of the French Revolution, he paſſed over to the Continent, got himſelf introduced to the French Commander on the frontiers, and had then an opportunity of witneſſing all the manœuvres of his camp. He afterwards viſited the camp of the Duke of Brunſwick, and ſeemed reſolved to court every occaſion of increaſing his knowledge of the military art, and of perfecting himſelf in the ſkill neceſſary for a great General.

While he was thus cultivating his profeſſional ſtudies, he was not inattentive to the ſtate of politics in Ireland. On the death of his father he was elected Member for Cork, on the independent intereſt; and, though in general a ſupporter of Miniſterial meaſures, he was ever a decided friend to Catholic emancipation. When that queſtion was fully debated in 1789, a ſpeech he delivered on the occaſion is very creditable to his talents, and was regarded as a very promiſing ſpecimen of eloquence. On the queſtion of union he joined miniſtry, though he was very far from approving all the acts to which they reſorted for accompliſhing that meaſure. During the rebellion in Ireland, he diſtinguiſhed himſelf as an able, active, and humane officer. In the whole of his conduct throughout the unfortunate period, he gave proofs of military talents which were calculated to be of the moſt eſſential ſervice to his country, on whatever field he ſhould be called upon to exert them. In the ſelection of officers to ſerve in the expedition to Egypt, it is generally underſtood, that the opinion of the ever to be lamented Abercromby was principally conſulted: and by his recommendation, it is believed, that General Hutchinſon was appointed to the rank which he held in the expedition. How well he has juſtified the choice his actions beſt can ſhew. And while he ſo generouſly laviſhes praiſes on the brave companions of his ſervices, and, with the modeſty which gives new luſtre to heroiſm, ſeeks to conceal his own merit, he cannot fail to receive from his country, that tribute of gratitude ſo juſtly due to his conduct as a General and a ſoldier.

MEMOIRS

MEMOIRS OF THE ABBE RAYNAL.

WILLIAM-THOMAS RAYNAL, commonly called the Abbe Raynal, was educated among the Jeſuits, and had become one of the order. The learning of that ſociety is univerſally known, as well as the happy talents which its ſuperiors poſſeſſed, of aſſigning to each member his proper employment. Raynal, however, after having acquired among them a taſte for literature and ſcience, had probably become refractory, for he was expelled from the order; and the cauſe of his expulſion, according to the Abbe Barruel, was his impiety.

With the real cauſe of his expulſion, M. Barruel may be much better acquainted than we can be: but we have a ſtrong ſuſpicion that his impieties had not then reached farther than to call in queſtion the ſupreme authority of the church; for our author himſelf aſſures us, that he did not utter his atrocious declarations againſt Chriſtianity till he had ceaſed to be a member of the order of Jeſuits. He then aſſociated himſelf with Voltaire, D'Alembert, and Diderot, and was by them employed to furniſh the theological articles for the *Encyclopedie*. But though his religious opinions were certainly lax, and his moral principles very exceptionable, he could not even then be what, in a Proteſtant country, would be deemed a man remarkable for impiety; for he employed the Abbe Yvon, whom M. Barruel calls an old metaphyſician, but an inoffenſive and upright man, to write the articles which he was engaged to furniſh. In the conducting of this tranſaction, he ſhowed, indeed, that he poſſeſſed not a proper ſenſe of honour; for he paid poor Yvon with twenty-five louis d'ors for writing theological articles, for which he received himſelf ſix times that ſum. This trick was diſcovered, Raynal was diſgraced, and compelled to pay up the balance to Abbe Yvon; but though he had thus ſhown himſelf to be without honour, it is difficult to believe that he had yet proceeded ſo far as to blaſpheme the Saviour of mankind, ſince he had employed a Chriſtian divine to ſupply his place in the *Encyclopedie*.

His firſt work of eminence, and that indeed upon which his fame is chiefly built is his 'Political and Philoſophical Hiſtory of the European Settlements in the Eaſt and Weſt Indies.' That this hiſtory is written in an animated ſtyle, and that it contains many juſt reflections, both political and philoſophical, is known to all Europe; for it has been tranſlated into every European language. Its beauties, however, are deformed by many ſentiments that are irreligious, and by ſome that are impure. It was followed, we think, about 1780, by a ſmall tract, entitled 'The Revolution of America, in which the author pleads the cauſe of the revolted coloniſts with a degree of zeal, cenſures the conduct of the Britiſh government with keeneſs of aſperity, and diſplays a knowledge of the principles and intrigues of the different factions which at that period divided the Engliſh nation, that ſurely was not natural to the impartial pen of a philoſophic foreigner. Hence he has been ſuppoſed to have been incited to the undertaking, and to have been furniſhed with part of his materials, by ſome perſons who oppoſed the meaſures of the Engliſh government, and ſecretly fomented the American cauſe. Be this as it may, he propagated, both in this tract and in his hiſtory, a number of licentious opinions, reſpecting government and religion, of which he lived to regret the conſequences.

A proſecution was inſtituted

againſt him by the French government, on account of his hiſtory of the Eaſt and Weſt Indies; but it was conducted with ſo little ſeverity, that he had ſufficient time to retire to the dominions of the king of Pruſſia, who afforded him the protection he ſolicited, although his majeſty's character was treated by the author, in his book, with no great degree of veneration. Raynal alſo experienced the kindneſs of the empreſs of Ruſſia; and it is not a little remarkable, of this ſingular perſonage, that although he was always ſevere in diſcuſſing the characters of princes, yet the moſt deſpotic among theſe heaped upon him many marks of favour and generoſity. The Abbe alſo received a very unuſual mark of reſpect from a Britiſh Houſe of Commons. It was once intimated to the Speaker, that Raynal was a ſpectator in the gallery. The buſineſs was immediately ſuſpended, and the ſtranger conducted to a more convenient and honourable ſtation. How different was the conduct of Dr Johnſon, who when a friend advanced to him with our author, ſaying, 'Will you give me leave, doctor, to introduce to you the Abbe Raynal?' turned on his heel, and vociferated 'No, ſir!' We are far from wiſhing to vindicate the ſage; but it was perhaps as proper as the politeneſs of the houſe of commons.

The great trait of Raynal's character was a love of liberty, which, in his earlier writings, he did not properly define; but when he lived to ſee ſome of the conſequences of this, in the progreſs of the French revolution, he made one glorious effort to retrieve his errors. In the month of May 1791, he addreſſed to the conſtituent aſſembly one of the moſt eloquent, argumentative, and impreſſive letters that ever was written on any ſubject; a letter which, if the majority of them had not been intoxicated with their newly acquired conſequence, muſt have given ſome check to their mad career.

One conſequence of this letter was very ſingular. Thoſe who could not anſwer it, nor reſiſt the conviction of its arguments, wreaked their vengeance on Raynal, by endeavouring to prove that he did not write the celebrated hiſtory of the Indies, and this became the cant of the day.

This letter was written by Mr Thomas Chriſtie, who wrote a volume ſome time after on the French revolution; but when our readers conſider that he was then intoxicated with the fallacious proſpects of that revolution, and that this accuſation againſt the Abbe Raynal was not produced until he had written againſt the proceedings of the aſſembly, they will eaſily be able to appreciate the information, that he was not the author of the celebrated hiſtory.

CHARACTERS OF EMINENT PAINTERS.

From Mr Fuſeli's Lectures on Painting.

Salvator Roſa.

The wildneſs of Salvator Roſa, oppoſes a powerful contraſt to the claſſic regularity of Pouſſin. Terrific and grand in his conceptions of inanimate nature, he was reduced to attempts of hiding, by boldneſs of hand, his inability of exhibiting her impaſſioned, or in the dignity of character: his line is vulgar; his magic viſions leſs founded on the principles of terror than on mythologic traſh and caprice, are to the probable cambinations of nature, what the paroxyſms of a fever are to the

the flights of vigorous fancy. Though ſo much excelled and ſo ambitiouſly imitated, his banditti are a medley made up of ſtarveling models, ſhreds and bits of armour from his lumber room, bruſhed into notice by a daring pencil. Salvator was a ſatiriſt and a critic, but the rod which he had the inſolence to lift againſt the nudities of Michael Angelo, and the anachroniſm of Raphael, would have been better employed in chaſtiſing his own miſconceptions.

Correggio.

ANOTHER charm was yet wanting to complete the round of art—harmony: it appeared with Antonoi Læti, called Correggio, whoſe works it attended like an enchanted ſpirit. The harmony and the grace of Correggio are proverbial: the medium which by breadth of gradation unites two oppoſite principles, the coalition of light and darkneſs by imperceptible tranſition, are the element of his ſtyle. —This inſpires his figures with grace, to this their grace is ſubordinate: the moſt appropriate, the moſt elegant attitudes were adopted, rejected, perhaps ſacrificed to the moſt awkward ones, in compliance with this imperious principle: parts vaniſhed, were abſorbed, or emerged in obedience to it. This uniſon of a whole, predominates over all that remains of him, from the vaſtneſs of his cupolas to the ſmalleſt of his oil pictures.—The harmony of Correggio, though aſſiſted by exquiſite hues, was entirely independent of colour: his great organ was chiaroſcuro in its moſt extenſive ſenſe; compared with the expanſe in which he floats, the effects of Lionardo da Vinci, are little more than the dying ray of evening, and the concentrated flaſh of Giogione diſcordant abruptneſs. The bland central light of a globe, imperceptibly gliding through lucid demi-tints into rich reflected ſhades, compoſes the ſpell of Correggio, and affects us with the ſoft emotions of a delicious dream.

The Carracci.

TOWARD the decline of the ſixteenth century, Ludovico Carracci, with his couſin Agoſtino and Annibale founded, at Bologna, that eccleſtic ſchool, which by ſelecting the beauties, correcting the faults, ſupplying the defects, and avoiding the extremes of the different ſtyles, attempted to form a perfect ſyſtem. But as the mechanic part was their only object, they did not perceive that the projected union was incompatible with the leading principle of each maſter. Let us hear this plan from Agoſtino Carracci himſelf, as it is laid down in his ſonnet, on the ingredients required to form a perfect painter, if that may be called a ſonnet, which has more the air of medical preſcription. 'Take ſays Agoſtino, 'the deſign of Rome, Venetian motion and ſhade, the dignified tone of Lombardy's colour, the terrible manner of Micheal Angelo, the juſt ſymmetry of Raphael, Titiano's truth of nature, and the ſovereign purity of Correggio's ſtyle; add to theſe the decorum and ſolidity of Tibaldi, the learned invention of Primaticio, and a little of Parmegiano's grace; but to ſave ſo much ſtudy, ſuch weary labour, apply your imitation to the works which our dear Nicolo has left us here.'—Of ſuch advice, balanced between the tone of regular breeding and the cant of an empiric, what could be the reſult? Excellence or mediocrity? Who ever imagined that a multitude of diſſimilar threads could compoſe an uniform texture, that diſſemination of ſpots would make maſſes, or a little of many things produce a legitimate whole? Indiſcriminate imitation muſt end in the extinction of character, and that in mediocrity—the cypher of art.

And were the Carracci ſuch? Separate the precept from the practice, the artiſt from the teacher; and the Carracci are in poſſeſſion of my ſubmiſſive homage. Ludovico, far from implicitly ſubſcribing to a maſter's dictates, was the ſworn pupil of nature

ture. To a modeſt ſtyle of form, to a ſimplicity eminently fitted for thoſe ſubjects of religious gravity, which his taſte preferred, he joined that ſolemnity of hue, that ſober twilight; the air of cloiſtered meditation, which you have ſo often heard recommended as the proper tone of hiſtoric colour Too often content to rear the humbler graces of his ſubject, he ſeldom courted elegance, but always, when he did, with enviable ſucceſs. Even now, though nearly in a ſtate of evaneſcence, the three nymphs in the garden ſcene of St Michele in Boico, ſeem moulded by the hand, inſpired by the breath of love. Agoſtino, with a ſingular modeſty which prompted him rather to propagate the fame of others by his graver, than by ſteady exertion to rely on his own power for perpetuity of name, combined with ſome learning a cultivated taſte, correctneſs, though not elegance of form, and a *correggiſque* colour. Annibale, ſuperior to both in power of execution and academic proweſs, was inferior to either in taſte, and ſenſibility, and judgement; for the moſt ſtriking proof of this inferiority I appeal to his maſter work, the work on which he reſts his fame, the gallery of the Farneſe palace: a work whoſe uniform vigour of execution, nothing can equal but its imbecility and incongruity of conception. If impropriety of ornament were to be fixed by definition, the ſubjects of the Farneſe gallery might be quoted as the moſt deciſive inſtances. Criticiſm has attempted to diſmiſs Paolo Veroneſe and Tintoretto from the province of legitimate hiſtory, with the contemptuous appellation of ornamental painters, not for having painted ſubjects inapplicable to the public and private palaces, the churches and convents, which they were employed to decorate, but becauſe they treated them ſometimes without regard to coſtume, or the ſimplicity due to ſacred, heroic, or allegoric ſubjects: if this be juſt, where ſhall we claſs him, who with the Capella Siſtina, and Vatican before his eye, fills the manſion of religious auſterity and epiſcopal dignity, with a chaotic ſeries of trite fable and bachanalian revelry, without allegory, void of alluſion, merely to gratify the puerile oſtentation of dauntleſs execution and academic vigour? If the praiſe given to a work be not always transferable to its maſter; if, as Milton ſays, 'the work ſome praiſe and ſome the architect,' let us admire the ſplendour, the exuberance, the concentration of power diſplayed in the Farneſe gallery, while we lament their miſapplication by Annibale Carracci.

THE ENGLISH NAVY IN THE SIXTEENTH CENTURY.

From Pennant's Journey to the Iſle of Wight.

TILL the reign of Henry VII, the naval force of England was either hired from the merchant, foreign or native, or ſupplied by the cinque and other ports of the kingdom; but the navy was under no ſort of regulation: the bargain was made with the firſt, or the demand made from the laſt, according to their different aſſeſſments. Some of the veſſels were of vaſt ſize; ſuch was the Chriſtopher, one of thoſe engaged in the celebrated victory off Sluys, gained over the French in 1340; but we know nothing concerning either the building or the ſhipwrights. The ſails of the royal ſhips were moſt ſplendid; thoſe of the veſſel which carried Richard II, were of white ſilk, richly embroidered with a golden ſun. In this ſplendid reign there was an emulation between France and England, which ſhould excel in this ſpecies of folly.—'Every man,' ſays old Grafton, 'helped to make proviſion for other, and to garniſhe and bewtifie their ſhippes, and to paynt them with their armes, and to advance and make them a glorious

ſhewe

ſhewe to the whole worlde. Painters, at that time, were well ſet on worke, and the time was to them very profitable; for they had whatſoever they deſyred, and yet there could not enow of them be gotten for money. They made banners, penons, ſtandards of ſilk, ſo ſumptuous and comely that it was a maruelle to beholde.

'Alſo they peynted the maſtes of their ſhippes from the one end to the other, glittering with golde, and deuiſes and armes that was maruelous ryche; and eſpecially (ſaith Froiſſart) as it was tolde me, the lorde Guy of Tremoyle, ſo decked, garniſhed and bewtified his ſhip with peynting and colours that it coſt him two thouſende frankes of French money, that is more than ccxxij pound of the current money of Englande. And in lyke manner did every lorde of Fraunce ſet fourth his deuiſe and ſhew.'

It is from ſuch imagery that Mr Gray formed his beautiful deſcription of the reign of that unhappy monarch, proſperous in the beginning, and moſt dreadful in its concluſion:

'Fair laughs the morn, and ſoft the zephyr blows,
While proudly riding o'er the azure realm,
In gallant trim the gilded veſſel goes,
Youth on the prow and pleaſure at the helm;
Regardleſs of the ſweeping whirlwind's ſway,
That, hush'd in grim repoſe, expects his ev'ning prey.'

Henry VII was the firſt of our monarchs who may be ſuppoſed to have formed a royal dock. He it was who improved the fortifications of Portſmouth, after they had been begun by Edward IV, and continued by Richard III. This makes it probable that he here built the famous ſhip the Great Harry, which, ſays Stow, coſt 14,000l. the ſame ſum which he expended on his beautiful chapel of Weſtminſter Abbey. The ſhip was built about the year 1503, and was burnt by accident at Woolwich, in Auguſt 1553.

His ſon, Henry VIII, may be called the founder of the Engliſh navy, began with building the great ſhips the Regent and the Sovereign. The firſt was loſt in an engagement off Breſt, in 1512: that gallant gentleman Sir Thomas Knevet, grappled with the Cordelier, in which the French admiral had hoiſted his flag; both took fire, and blew up with their commanders and ſixteen hundred brave ſeamen: both fleets retired inſtantly, terrified by the dreadful ſcene, without offering to continue the engagement. Henry, to repair the loſs, built the Great Henry Grace de Dieu, of far greater bulk than the Regent. This ſhip is twice exhibited to us in painting. The firſt is a great picture I had an opportunity of ſeeing in one of the lower apartments in Windſor Caſtle. It repreſents the king ſetting ſail from Dover for Calais, for the celebrated interview between him and Francis I, between Guines and Ardres, in 1520, called *Le Champ de Drap d'Or*. Henry had caught the vain magnificence of Richard II: the ſails and pendents of his ſhip were of cloth of gold, damaſked; all his ſuite of ſhip and men were equally ſplendid, for the chief nobility of the realm attended. I muſt refer the reader to the minute deſcription given by that accurate antiquarian, John Topham, eſq. I ſhall only add, that the land ſcenery is alſo repreſented, of Dover and the harbour; its forts, Arch-cliff, and the Black Bulwark; and, finally, the diſtant view of France, and the city of Calais. The ſecond is one of the celebrated pictures at Cowdray. [While I write, I am ſhocked with the news, that the houſe itſelf, and the whole of that invaluable collection, is now no more, having, on September 24, 1793, been conſumed by fire.] In the firſt picture, as Mr Walpole obſerves, his ſhips were as ſumptuous as Cleopatra's galley on the Cydnus. In this they were, as the time required, fitted with all the neceſſaries of war. Theſe great friends, Francis and

Henry

Henry, had forgot their warm embraces on Le Champ de Drap d'Or. They quarrelled, and went to war: Francis ſent a vaſt fleet under D'Annabaut, admiral of France, who came off Bembridge point in the Iſle of Wight, and from thence ſtretched along the ſhore to St Helen's, on July 18, 1554. The Engliſh fleet, under Viſcount Liſle in the Great Harry, anchored off Spithead, to cover the entrance into Portſmouth; not only to defend it, but, if poſſible, to engage the French to embarraſs themſelves by following him into the narrow paths amid the ſand-banks. The French gallies often came to inſult our great ſhips to provoke them to come out but to no purpoſe. A cannonade was continued on both ſides during two days; and the French pretend that they ſunk the Mary Roſe, a ſhip ſecond in ſize to the Henry Grace de Dieu: certain it is that ſhe was ſunk, and her commander ſir George Carew and near ſix hundred men were drowned. But this accident was owing to ſome awkward manœuvre. She was overladen with guns, ſome were unbreeched, and her port holes left open; ſo, by an unfortunate heeling, ſhe filled with water, and went to the bottom. The French, finding they could make no impreſſion on our ſhips, after plundering the Iſle of Wight, retired to their own coaſts. Henry, on the firſt noiſe of the invaſion, came in perſon, and appears in the piece on horſeback, and behind him his great favourite and lieutenant the duke of Suffolk, and Sir Anthony Brown, maſter of the horſe. They are riding out of Portſmouth, and entering Southſea Caſtle (a fortreſs of Henry's raiſing) in their way to the camp, which lay beyond.

The great ſhips of war had four maſts: they had port-holes for the cannon, which is ſaid to have been at this time a novelty; for, before, the few they had lay upon the deck, on the prow, or on the poop.

LYCEUM EXHIBITION.

Independent of portraits on canvas and portraits on copper, there has lately ariſen another ſpecies of portraits, on which a *Retroſpect of the Arts* ſhould not be wholly ſilent. They are ſhewn in a room totally dark, but illuminate themſelves, are ſeen floating in the air, varying their appearance, diminiſhing in their ſize as they recede from the eye, and at length *vaniſhing into air—into thin air*. We allude to the Exhibition which M. De Philipſtall every evening diſplays at the Lyceum, in the Strand, and which he denominates *the Phantaſmogoria*. This very ſingular *ſpectrology* has been already exhibited in Dreſden, Paris, and other principal cities of Europe; and the proprietor profeſſes it to be one of his objects to unmaſk artful impoſtors, and open the eyes of ſuch perſons as ſtill retain a belief in ghoſts, enchantments, conjurations, &c. The different figures are, in part, made up of portraits of diſtinguiſhed characters; among them are Queen Elizabeth, Mary Queen of Scots, Cromwell, Voltaire, Louis XVI., Admiral Nelſon, and a variety of other diſtinguiſhed perſonages. Theſe freely originate in the air, and unfold themſelves under various forms and ſizes. Some from a ſtar-like point of fire; others from an aſcending cloud or vapour; and, what is extremely ſingular, change their figures and aſſume other forms while floating before the eye.

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SKETCH OF THE EDUCATION, ACCOMPLISHMENTS, AND CHARACTER OF A BRITISH MERCHANT.

From Mortimer's 'Lectures on the Elements of Commerce, Politics, and Finances.'*

THE antiquity of the free profeſſion of a merchant may juſtly entitle it to claim precedency to nobility of birth, and all hereditary or created dignities conferred on men by emperors or kings; for there were eminent merchants in the world long before there were any nobles or titled gentry. But, in the early ages of commerce, the rank and profeſſion of a merchant was neither ſo well underſtood, nor ſo clearly diſtinguiſhed from that of ſimple inland traders, or ſhopkeepers, as it has been in modern times.

At preſent, to uſe the elegant expreſſion of a celebrated commercial writer, the merchant is happily called 'the ſteward of the kingdom's ſtock, by way of commerce with other nations.' None, therefore, in Great Britain can properly be ſtiled merchants, but ſuch as export her native products and manufactures to foreign climes, or import the commodities of different countries into this realm. To this general acceptation of the word merchant, I ſhall ſtrictly adhere, that we may not confound the rank and character of the Britiſh merchant with that of a wholeſale dealer or trader; an error which we may eaſily be led into, if we conſider the common directories, and other printed liſts of our citizens, whoſe idle vanity often prompts them to pay ſome venal printer a ſmall annual gratification, to be placed in the firſt claſs of citizens, when their actual ſituation in life entitles them only to the ſecond, perhaps not even to that. And it is the more neceſſary in this place to mention this diſtinction, becauſe the education required to accompliſh the Britiſh merchant, is by no means neceſſary for the ſecond claſs of citizens—wholeſale traders.

The firſt care of parents and guardians, who deſign to bring up a youth to be a Britiſh merchant, ſhould be, to inſtill into his tender mind the ſoundeſt principles of religion and morality, and a ſacred veneration for truth; probity ſhould be the baſis of all his juvenile actions; nor ſhould he, even in his ſports and paſtimes, ever be ſuffered to forfeit his word, or evade his promiſe.

The early cultivation of his native language is indiſpenſably neceſſary, and to be preferred to the ſtudy of the dead languages. Parents cannot be guilty of a greater folly than to make lads threſh hard at Latin and Greek for ten or twelve years together, when perhaps they will not have occaſion twice in their lives, to ſpeak, read, or write, either of theſe languages. The learned languages rarely qualify men for any other profeſſions but thoſe of divinity, law, and phyſic. Beſides, when we conſider the brevity of human life, and how early men of buſineſs appear on the great theatre of the world, it is really amazing, that even four or five years ſhould be allotted to Latin and Greek, which might be ſo much more beneficially employed, by nine boys out of ten, in acquiring a perfect knowledge of their own copious language, by means of which alone without any other aid, they might know as much of ancient learning as is neceſſary to gratify curioſity, or likely to be generally uſeful: for all the beſt ancient authors are tranſlated into Engliſh; and as to the arts and ſciences, the knowledge of them may be acquired by him, who thoroughly underſtands his maternal tongue, with-

* See an account of this Work, p. 556.

out ſtudying any other, ancient or modern.

It is indeed an opinion blindly received, and ſwallowed down from age to age, without examination, 'that Latin is neceſſary to acquire the arts and ſciences.'

'There is, however, no more connexion between Latin and ſcience, nor between Latin and any one art, than between Engliſh and the ſame art. Will a man who underſtands Latin run, or wreſtle, or dance, or fence, better than if he knew but Engliſh? Will a clockmaker, who knows Latin, finiſh his work with greater accuracy? Will a commander who has learned Latin, navigate a veſſel to the Eaſt or Weſt Indies better than one who ſpeaks Engliſh, French, Dutch, or Spaniſh?

'The knowledge of things is acquired by thought and ſerious obſervation: and of arts, by practice and experience; and it makes no difference in what language either of them is learned or expreſſed. The finer arts, muſic, painting, and architecture, might have been invented at firſt juſt as well by one who thought and ſpoke in Engliſh, as by one who thought and ſpoke in Greek or in Latin. They, as well as other arts and ſciences, can be taught to greater advantage in Engliſh, than in either of the other two.

'All the great diſcoveries in natural philoſophy, the true ſyſtem of aſtronomy, the theory of gravitation, the various improvements in optics and mechanics, are the productions of modern times*.'

The ſenſible part of Great Britain therefore, who have turned their thoughts upon right education, eſpecially ſuch as have written upon it, are univerſally of opinion, that it is much wiſer to ſet youth upon a courſe of education, every part of which is eaſily attainable, and of real uſe in public life, than to torture him with the dead languages. And as to a merchant, it is evident he may be perfectly accompliſhed without the knowledge of them; but if he thinks proper to ſtudy them, let it be at his leiſure hours, after he has made himſelf maſter of every branch of knowledge requiſite for his profeſſion. Should he find himſelf, by ſucceſs in commerce, and the favour of his countrymen, likely to become a ſenator, it will then be time enough for him to ſit down and read the latin proſe authors; and having attained the elements of languages, he will make more progreſs in ſix months, than a boy at ſchool in ſix years, and fully ſufficient to enable him to ornament his ſpeeches with ſtrokes of ancient eloquence, or even to introduce an appoſite quotation from the Latin authors. But, as a further proof, that even this knowledge of the Latin tongue is not indiſpenſably neceſſary, we have only to review the houſe of commons in the preſent, or any paſt parliament, and we ſhall find, generally ſpeaking, the greateſt claſſical ſcholars, the beſt univerſity proficients, are the ſilent members, or uneloquent ſpeakers in that houſe.

The late Mr Sheridan, in his plan of Britiſh education, obſerves what has been a general complaint: 'That, inſtead of preparing each youth for that ſphere of life in which he is afterward to move, all are trained in one and the ſame courſe, which fits them for no one employment on earth. A ſmattering in two dead languages is all that is to be gotten by the preſent method of education, the art of wrangling, ſome ſmall knowledge in ſpeculative philoſophy, and ſome crude notions of impenetrable metaphyſics.'

In fine, ſo neceſſary is it, in my idea, to undeceive parents and guardians on this ſubject of the education of youth, not deſigned for the three learned profeſſions of divinity, law, and phyſic, and yet ſo obſtinate are the

* See a Plan of Engliſh Grammar-ſchool Education, by James Buchanan, 1770.

the pedantic and ſelf-intereſted, in recommending the old method of plodding on in Latin and Greek, that I have ſpared no pains to collate the beſt authorities in ſupport of my own judgement, and ſhall conclude the topic with the ſanction of one of the moſt learned, candid, and accompliſhed gentlemen of the age we live in, (Dr Lowth, late Biſhop of London). His opinion muſt have a double force, when it is conſidered, that though a perfect maſter of the Hebrew, Greek, and Latin languages, he judged it neceſſary, for the benefit of his country, to ſit down and compoſe an eaſy familiar introduction to the Engliſh tongue: and to recommend to all perſons concerned in the education of Britiſh youth, to make a grammatical knowledge of their maternal language, the baſis of the ſtudy of foreign languages.

'To enter at once upon the ſcience of grammar, and the ſtudy of a foreign language,' ſays this elegant writer, 'is to encounter two difficulties together, each of which would be much leſſened, by being taken ſeparately, and in its proper order. A competent grammatical knowledge of our own language is the true foundation upon which all literature, properly ſo called, ſhould be raiſed. If this method were adopted in our ſchools, children would have ſome notion of what they are going about, when they ſhould enter into the Latin grammar, and would hardly be engaged ſo many years as they now are, in that moſt irkſome and difficult part of literature, with ſo much labour of the memory, and with ſo little aſſiſtance of the underſtanding.'—I ſhall only add another paſſage, as a corroborating proof, that a merchant may diſpenſe with the dead languages.

'The Engliſh language hath been much cultivated during the laſt two hundred years. It hath been conſiderably poliſhed and refined, its bounds have been greatly enlarged, its energy, variety, richneſs, and elegance, hath been abundantly proved by numberleſs trials, in verſe and proſe, upon all ſubjects, and in every kind of ſtyle.'—

On the ſtrength of all theſe authorities I preſume to recommend a grammatical purſuit of the Engliſh language from the age of eight to twelve years, during which time, it is to be hoped, a youth, intended to be a merchant, will be able to read, write, and ſpeak with propriety, eaſe and elegance, in his native tongue, more eſpecially if he has been in the hands of an able private preceptor. Vulgar arithmetic and writing may ſhare ſuch parts of theſe four years, as are neceſſary to enliven ſtudy by variety.

The wholeſale dealer or ſhopkeeper's education may receive the addition of two years further application to writing, to the branch of arithmetic which teaches book-keeping, and to the attainment of the French language, which being almoſt univerſally current, may be uſeful to him in the common courſe of buſineſs, eſpecially as great numbers of foreigners, who converſe in French, uſually reſort to England in the time of peace. A lad thus qualified, is ready at the age of fourteen, to be an indentured apprentice.

But he, who is deſigned for the comprehenſive profeſſion of a Britiſh merchant, muſt range through more extenſive fields of ſcience. After attaining a competent knowledge of the French language, he ſhould ſtudy the Spaniſh, which is uſed in almoſt all the eaſt, particularly on the coaſt of Africa, from the Canaries to the Cape of Good Hope: the Italian, in uſe on all the coaſts of the Mediterranean, and in many parts of the Levant: and the Teutonic or German, which is common in almoſt all the northern countries of the globe.

The elements of general hiſtory, and a thorough knowledge of the chronological, political, and commercial hiſtory of his country ſhould be his

concern. With theſe, and the principles of geography and navigation, we may allow him to enlarge and improve his underſtanding, till he attain his eighteenth year.

The nature of the conſular juriſdiction, and of the laws, manners and cuſtoms of the countries with which Great Britain carries on any conſiderable commerce, ſhould now occupy part of his attention; and the ſeveral commercial inſtitutions, with the uſe of banks, of bills of exchange, and the rules of circulation, another portion of his time.

He ought to inform himſelf accurately in what commodities each trading country abounds, what are the merchandize they demand from other countries, and from what places they receive them.

The cuſtoms, tolls, taxes, exciſes, convoys, and all other charges upon merchandize exported from or imported into his own and all foreign countries, ſhould be another principal object for the young merchant. The prohibitions laid on various commodities in different nations he ſhould thoroughly acquaint himſelf with. The meaſures, weights and coins of all countries, ſhould be familiar to him.

He ſhould be taught to know on what conditions to freight and iſſue ſhips and merchandize: he ſhould alſo be enabled to form a tolerable judgement of the prices of the ſeveral articles uſed for the building or repairing of ſhips; and alſo the manner of contracting for naval ſtores and proviſions, with the ordinary rates of the wages of mariners.

He ought to acquire great expertneſs in the mode of tranſacting buſineſs at the cuſtom-houſe, and on the quays of the ports of his own country: and, in order to this, I ſhould imagine, no better expedient could be deviſed, than to obtain leave for young gentlemen (educating for merchants) to practice under the principal agents for cuſtom-houſe buſineſs; or to be received as aſſiſtants to the clerks at the long-room, and in the cuſtom-houſes of the out-ports, without fee or reward. Our young merchants being thus initiated, we ſhould hereafter ſee all thoſe difficulties and perplexities removed, which at preſent ariſe from blundering entries, or the over-hurry of the clerks; and thoſe pupils would be a check upon the mal-practices of the inferior officers.

Having now brought on our youth to about the eighteenth year, if he has been introduced into a counting-houſe at home, and has been ſhown the general manner of correſpondence with foreign merchants, it will be adviſeable to finiſh his education, by ſending him for two or three years more on his travels, recommending him at each place where he is to reſide a few months, to ſome conſiderable merchant, who ſhould be adviſed to receive him without form or ceremony, on the footing of one of his family; and, ſo far as is conſiſtent with the neceſſary ſecrecy of commercial tranſactions, to let him aſſiſt in his accompting-houſe, and in his warehouſes.

By theſe means, at the age of majority, or perhaps one year later, he will return completely accompliſhed, to appear on the Royal Exchange of London, with honour and credit to his friends, and true ſatisfaction to himſelf; in the reſpectable character of a Britiſh merchant.

Should he then ſucceed at the houſe of his anceſtors, or be aſſociated with that, or any other capital company, he will be an acquiſition to it of ineſtimable value: while thoſe who are educated in this diſſipated metropolis, and comment on the laws of commerce at coffeehouſes or taverns, exhauſt the the funds of their fathers, ruin themſelves and their partners, and ſink down into the tomb of contempt, or oblivion, before they have half finiſhed their mortal career.

A firm attachment to the true principles of honour, a religious adherence

to

to his word, clearneſs and integrity in his contracts, prudent generoſity in his dealings with the induſtrious poor, with a becoming dignity and moral rectitude in his manners, joined to the accompliſhments we have recommended, muſt pave the way to affluence; if moſt extraordinary misfortunes, ſuch as ſeldom occur in life, do not prevent it: and opulence will afford the means to ſupport thoſe dignities in the ſtate, which public eſteem will not fail to confer, in this free country on ſuch exalted characters. Our young merchant, therefore, ſhould keep the honours of magiſtracy, and the important charge of a Britiſh legiſlator, the repreſentative of a free people, conſtantly in his eye. Theſe ſhould be his *civic* crowns: and if he can nobly reſolve to ſacrifice private eaſe and indulgence to the public good, being ſeated in the houſe of commons, let him there boldly ſtand forth the intrepid advocate for the free conſtitution of his country, even in the worſt of times. If merit of this caſt recommends him to his ſovereign, let him aſpire to foreign embaſſies, to miniſterial offices in foreign countries, for which he will be ſo well qualified: and after having rendered his country ſignal ſervice, by protecting its rights and privileges abroad; if wiſdom and integrity ſteer the helm of government, he may expect to be choſen an aſſiſtant pilot.

Happy would it be for this country, if we had more ſuch accompliſhed merchants, as I have deſcribed, in parliament, and in the great councils of the ſtate. Let this conſideration therefore excite our Britiſh youth, deſigned for this honourable profeſſion, to follow the plan of education here laid down.

For the Scots Magazine.

ON MONUMENTS AND NATIONAL REWARDS TO PERPETUATE THE MEMORY OF OUR VICTORIES.

Sir,

AS we have, I think now the proſpect, not only of an honourable, but in my opinion a permanent peace; and as this war has occaſioned inſtances of bravery and conduct, both by ſea and land, more glorious and remarkable than any on record, I think the attention of the nation ſhould be called to the conſideration of ſuch rewards and public teſtimonies of eſteem, as may hand down the memory of our heroes to the lateſt poſterity.

Permit me, ſir, to make a few remarks on the moſt probable means of effecting theſe purpoſes.

But firſt let me advert to a propoſal made many years ago, by the celebrated dean Swift, or as he pretends (and perhaps it was really ſo) by a friend of his. After mentioning the uſeleſſneſs of *medals* to this purpoſe, which are generally confined to the party thus honoured, or to the cabinets of the curious, it is ſuggeſted by this writer, that medals, bearing teſtimony to valour or great actions in the political world, ſhould be made the *current coin* of the kingdom. By this means they might be diſperſed into the remoteſt corners of the empire, and come into the poſſeſſion of the poor as well as of the rich.

This ſcheme, Mr Editor, is, at firſt ſight, accompanied with many advantages, of which that of general, or I may ſay univerſal circulation, is the moſt conſiderable; but if we examine it a little more attentively, we ſhall perhaps find that it is loaded by inſuperable obſtructions. I am fully convinced that our government would never permit the *current coin* of the kingdom to bear any other ſtamp than

that

that which indicates the form of the conſtitution, the head of the ſovereign. This has been the practice from the earlieſt origin of current coin, and ſo well aware of the utility of this have mankind been, that even uſurpers have taken the ſame precaution to point out to the people where the ſupreme authority reſides. In France, when monarchy was deſtroyed, every pains was taken to call in and recoin the money, which bore the ſtamp of the king.

But, it may be ſaid, that while the head of the ſovereign occupies one ſide of a coin, the other may be appropriated to the commemoration of ſome glorious victory. This, I apprehend, could hardly be ſeriouſly propoſed. In our ideas of the Britiſh conſtitution, there is nothing ſuperior and nothing can be equal to the king, nor be permitted, if I may ſo ſpeak, to rival him in the public attention. This objection, therefore, it would be almoſt as indelicate to diſcuſs as to propoſe.

Another reaſon why it would be improper to truſt the commemoration of great and glorious actions to the current coin, is that the ſtamps would be frequently changed, and, I am proud to ſay it, this muſt have been the caſe in the preſent war, and thereby a confuſion introduced by the multiplication of different coins, of which the makers of falſe coin might eaſily avail themſelves. One great advantage of our current coin is its varying ſo little in form, and the loweſt of the people thereby acquiring a ready knowledge of it at the ſlighteſt inſpection, and being able with tolerable facility to diſtinguiſh the real from the forged, which could not be the caſe, if our coin had been made to vary with the achievements of our heroes, many of which took place in the courſe of a few years.

With reſpect to *medals*, there can be no poſſible objection, as far as they can commemorate, I would certainly have as many of them made as there is a demand for, and ſome have been executed in the preſent war, but not with that maſterly ſkill, which inclines a collector to preſerve them in his cabinet. Thoſe executed by the order of government are entirely confined to the parties. They will be valuable as family-memorandums, but can go no farther.

Some time ago, a very grand deſign was ſet on foot by a ſociety of public ſpirited gentlemen, who propoſed to raiſe by ſubſcription a ſum ſufficient to defray the expences of a monument of our naval victories, which might at once mark our eſteem for the heroes, and evince the ſplendid liberality and munificence of the nation. A conſiderable ſum has been already ſubſcribed, and it is probable that when peace returns, and nothing remains to be added to the four ſplendid victories, to which every one alludes, a ſum ſufficient for the purpoſe will be accumulated.

In this metropolis a ſtatue of our gallant and renowned countryman, General Sir Ralph Abercromby, has alſo been projected. To theſe ſchemes I wiſh all imaginable ſucceſs, but I do not think it *all* that ſhould be done, and for this obvious reaſon, that it is *one* object only, and muſt be confined to one ſpot. If erected in the metropolis or near it, it can be ſeen only by the inhabitants of the metropolis or thoſe who viſit it. Thouſands and tens of thouſands of his majeſty's ſubjects, will no more ſee it than they ſee St. Paul's, or the Monument, and have as confuſed ideas of it, if they read or hear of it. Opinions differ as to what this ſhould be, ſome propoſing a naval pillar, others a coloſſal ſtatue. For my purpoſe it is not material which is concluded upon, becauſe it is the purpoſe of this letter to ſuggeſt, that the more perfect commemoration and general remembrance of our great national tranſactions, would require that in *every county* of the kingdom,

kingdom, on ſome elevated ſpot, there ſhould be *a ſomething* of the kind. I cannot ſee how the memory of national honours and glories can be perpetuated, unleſs the nation at large has its memory refreſhed, as well as the metropolis. It is, indeed, proper that the metropolis ſhould take the lead in ſuch deſigns, and that it ſhould ſhow its preponderance of wealth and ſpirit, as the head and heart of the kingdom; but in order to render the honour more perfect, every inhabitant ought to be enabled to point at ſomething near him. We ſhall be convinced that this is the proper mode to perpetuate our glories, and to make the memory of them produce a ſtriking effect, if we only conſider what muſt be the feelings of a foreigner riding through the country, and unable to paſs over twenty or thirty miles without meeting with ſome remembrance of Britiſh valour, erected by Britiſh munificence. The vicinity of a great road would be naturally choſen for the erection of ſuch monuments, the ſhape, form, height, and expence of which would reſt with the taſte of the county; and the various counties would no doubt enter into an emulation which, moſt probably, would produce ſpecimens of ſkill and loyalty very creditable to their feelings.

Having taken the liberty to ſuggeſt this as the moſt proper plan for a general *national* commemoration of naval or military bravery I beg it may be underſtood that I am not objecting to the propoſed naval pillar, or whatever elſe it may be. It ſtill forms a part, but only one part of my plan. With reſpect to the ſituations of the others, let me alſo ſuggeſt, that beſide Portſmouth and Plymouth, which muſt obviouſly occur in every conſideration of the ſubject, the towns or villages, which produced our heroes, have a natural claim to preference, and the ſight of ſuch diſtinguiſhed monuments of national gratitude could not fail, I humbly preſume, to keep alive a ſtrong ſenſe of bravery and independence, and inſpire youth with proper objects for emulation.

I am, ſir, &c.

BRITANNUS.

For the Scots Magazine.

ON THE SITUATION OF THE DISSENTERS IN SCOTLAND.

POPERY was aboliſhed in Scotland, and preſbytery eſtabliſhed as the national religion, in the year 1560. Epiſcopacy took place of preſbytery in 1606; preſbytery was introduced in 1638, epiſcopacy again in 1662, and laſtly preſbytery was eſtabliſhed in 1689, and has ſince continued the legal form of church government.

The diſſenters from the eſtabliſhment may be divided into three claſſes. Thoſe of the Church of England; the Scotch Epiſcopal Church; and thoſe Diſſenters diſtinguiſhed by various appellations, who preſerve the ſame form of worſhip and government as the eſtabliſhment, but differing in ſome trivial matters have ſeceded from it.

Thoſe of the church of England are protected in their form of worſhip by the act of Parliament 10th of Q. Anne c. 7; whereby it is made lawful for all of the epiſcopal communions in Scotland, to meet for the exerciſe of divine worſhip, and all officers of the law are required to give them protection and aſſiſtance. Their Miniſters are obliged by 5th Geo. I. c. 29, to pray for his majeſty in expreſs words and to take the oaths to government.

The Scotch epiſcopal church is protected by the act 32 Geo. 3d. c. 63. upon the miniſter's ſubſcribing the thirty-nine articles of the church of England, taking the oaths to government, and praying for his Majeſty.

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The ſeceders are defended under the act of William and Mary, Parl. 1. Seſs. 2. c. 27, reſcinding the laws for conformity. Or perhaps they may be protected by the clauſe of 10th of Queen Anne c. 7. "making it free for all the ſubjects in Scotland, to meet for divine ſervice, without any diſturbance and to ſettle their congregations in what places they ſhall think fit, except pariſh churches."

Diſſenters have full power of erecting chapels and performing public worſhip in them; their paſtors may adminiſter the ſacraments and marry, and the congregation, by means of truſtees, may proſecute or defend its rights in a court of law. If any perſon ſhould purpoſely diſturb a diſſenting congregation, that perſon would, at common law, be puniſhable by fine or impriſonment: and it is ſpecially provided by 10th Ann. c. 7., that if any perſon ſhall diſturb a congregation or religious worſhip, thereby permitted, that perſon upon conviction ſhall forfeit 100l. Thus, religious liberty is ſecured in this country; and what is ſtill more liberal, public offices of truſt and profit are not confined to the members of the eſtabliſhment.

But ſuch congregation or ſociety of diſſenters, though permitted and even protected by the law, depends ſolely on the conſent of the members for its power and ſtability. Wanting the capacities of a corporation, no one is bound to obey its rules or orders, and a majority of the members may alter or overturn it.

The principal quality of a corporation is perpetuity. To ſupply the want of this a ſociety is obliged to name truſtees, in whoſe perſons the ſubjects belonging to it are veſted, for behoof of the ſociety. This inconvenience occaſions a multiplicity of conveyances from the ſurviving truſtees to others, and and in caſe of the death of all the truſtees, their heirs muſt make up titles to the ſubjects, before they can be conveyed to others. Theſe conſequences are avoided in a corporation, which never dies. The office bearer being once inveſted in its ſubjects, no renewal of inveſtiture is neceſſary, becauſe his ſucceſſors are proprietors of ſuch ſubjects by virtue of their office. But ſo looſe is the connection, and ſo unſtable the exiſtence of a ſociety, that a majority of the members may oblige the truſtees to denude themſelves of their truſt, and thereby put an end to it. So precarious is the miniſter's ſituation, that the truſtees, with a majority of the members of the congregation, may remove him, notwithſtanding a regular call in his favour, ſubſcribed by the whole, and his collation and induction in conſequence of that call.

A corporation has the peculiar privilege of making byelaws for its own government; but a ſociety has no ſuch power.

Though the law ſecures a diſſenting congregation from being broken or inveſted by external means, yet in a diſpute among its own members, a court will not conſider its purpoſe, but its property, and will regard it not as a religious but as a civil ſociety.

C.

LUMINOUS APPEARANCE OF OCEAN WATER CAUSED BY ANIMALS.

In a Letter from Profeſſor Mitchill, of New York, to Profeſſor Barton, of Philadelphia.

SO obvious an appearance as the phoſphoreſcence of ocean-water was aſcribed to animals as long ago as the time of Pliny. Some of theſe adhering to the rigging of veſſels in windy and ſtormy weather, and ſhining in the

the dark, ſeem to have cauſed the appearances known formerly by the names of Caſtor and Pollux. Much has been offered on this ſubject, both phyſically and hiſtorically, you know, by Charles Frederic Adler, in his *Diſſertatio de Noctiluca Marina*, which is well worthy of peruſal. He has given a magnified figure of a microſcopic worm, which, in the ſea of China, makes the ſalt water luminous. It is called by ſome French writers *ſcolopendre marine luiſante*, and by Linne *nereis noctiluca*. Some of the ſea-jellies and ſea blubbers have alſo been long known to be occaſionally luminous. The principal part of theſe are *meduſas*, which, at a very early day, obtruded themſelves on the attention of naturaliſts. But, notwithſtanding all this, the philoſophical world ſeems ſtill to be a good deal undecided as to the real cauſe of the phoſphoreſcence of the ocean. I have therefore recorded the following facts, which fell under my own eye, hoping they may not be without their uſe in explaining the phænomenon. Pennant, in his Britiſh Zoology, vol. 4. expreſſes very juſt ideas on the ſubject.

On the evening of Saturday, the 13th of September 1800, about high water, as we were preparing, between ſeven and eight o'clock, to bathe in the bay, my attention was called to a remarkable luminous appearance at the water's edge on the beach. The wind was from the ſouthward, and the day had been ſo warm, that about two P. M. the quickſilver in a thermometer hanging in a ſhaded piazza, on the ſouth ſide of the houſe, had riſen to 89 degrees. At this moment it ſtood as high as 76. The diſtance from the chamber windows to high water mark is 210 feet. It ſeemed as if the beach was covered with coals of fire, and that bright ſparkles were conſtantly emitted among them. The ſmall undulation which moved to land looked like a wave of flame rolling along the ſhore; and the water beyond to the diſtance of a few roods, exhibited frequent corruſcations of extraordinary brightneſs. On going down to the water, I found the ſand covered with moluſca animals, the greater part of which were the *meduſa ſimplex*. Thouſands of them had juſt been left by the receding tide, and were yet alive. Being incapable of living long out of the water, and unable to ſurvive until the next flood, they ſeemed to be under the influence of their laſt vital movements. They lay ſo thick under foot, that at every tread many of them were cruſhed to pieces. Beſides their ſpontaneous power to become luminous, whenever they were moved they emitted light; and this happened indifferently, whether their gelatinous bodies were agitated through the medium of air, water, or the direct contact of the feet or fingers. On walking among them, and thereby exciting their luminous action, the beach reſembled melted metal in a red-hot ſtate; or the phænomenon might be compared to a radiant glory ſurrounding the feet, to the diſtance of a foot and a half, or more, at every tread. In ſeveral inſtances, the light emitted by a ſingle one, when taken, in its freſh and vivid ſtate, into my hand, was ſufficient to enable me to determine the time of night by my watch, the minute and hour hands being plainly to be ſeen: But this brightneſs was but tranſient. Frequently the creature emitted not a particle of light; and then, on a ſudden, the luminous appearance would be conſpicuous, and as quickly diſappear. The ſucceſſion of theſe lucid emanations, from the creatures lying in ſuch numbers upon the wet ſand, reſembled, if ſmall things may be compared with great, the unſteady light of the fixed ſtars; and, indeed, the twinkling of theſe phoſphoreſcent animals below, and of the celeſtial bodies above, afforded a ſpectacle ſo ſingular and ſo ſplendid, that I ſpent good part of the evening in admiring it. I remarked, alſo, that

the ſand on which theſe animals were left by the tide was luminous; and found, on cruſhing them to pieces in my hand, that a faint phoſphoreſcence was imparted both to the ſand and to my ſkin: but in neither caſe did it laſt long.

But what was as ſingular as any part of the phænomenon, was the effect produced by them upon our bodies and clothes while we were bathing. Whenever the water near one of them was agitated, a large fire ball ſeemed to burſt upon the view beneath the water; and whenever this happened in contact with one of the limbs, cauſed ſome of us inſtantaneouſly almoſt to ſtart, for fear of being burned. Where any of the ſlimy matter was left, ſomewhat of a luminous appearance was perceptible on our clothes, giving them and our ſkins ſometimes the appearance of phoſphoric ſpots, and ſometimes the more extraordinary ſemblance of being painted over with liquid fire. There were more than one ſpecies of animal; for beſides thoſe which, by their magnitude, were very plain ſubjects for examination, there were ſome luminous ſpots as ſmall as points, and as minute as the eye could diſcern. Theſe adhered to our clothes and ſkins, and, when taken up with the water in veſſels of glaſs, were too ſmall or too pellucid to be diſtinguiſhed by the naked eye, though they contributed eminently towards the effect of this ſubmarine illumination. This, I preſume, was the *nereis noctiluca*, an inteſtinal animal. I ſucceeded in diſcovering another ſpecies, which was a ſlender worm of about a quarter of an inch long, and emitted, at times, a bright light of a greeniſh hue. This was probably a larger ſpecies of nereis.

Not being well acquainted with the nature of thoſe moluſca beings, I apprehended ſome inconvenience from ſuch a maſs of animal matter left on the ſhore to putrefy ſo near the houſe. But my cauſe of alarm vaniſhed before the next riſing ſun: for, during the receſs of the tide, they all periſhed; though, inſtead of remaining a great maſs of dead gelatinous creatures on the beach, this whole collection of living animals, whoſe vivid exhibitions of light evinced their being alive near midnight, had ſo totally diſappeared before four o'clock, that no other trace of their having been there could be diſcerned, than ſome phoſphoreſcence in the ſand, on being ſtirred up by the foot or taken up in the hand. They had loſt their organiſation, and, in ſo ſhort a time, diſſolved into a kind of ſlime, which penetrated the ſand, and was mingled with the water in the next flood. On examining the ſpots at ſix o'clock next morning, before the beach was covered by the tide, not a veſtige of one of this numerous ſhoal of animals was diſcoverable by day-light. A ſpectator of the morning ſcene could not have known, by any thing diſcernible, that ſuch a brilliant exhibition had been made there the preceding evening, or that a ſingle animal had been caſt aſhore on the ſpot.

I put ſeveral of the larger ſpecies of theſe creatures into glaſſes of their native ſalt water, and carried them into my chamber. During the night I made repeated obſervations upon them, and found that the light they afforded was neither perpetual nor extended to their whole bodies. It was intermitting, and confined to certain lines paſſing from one extremity of the creature to another. The light was of a blueiſh colour, and the ſtreams of it were highly beautiful. Theſe animals lived all night in the water, and were as lively as ever in the morning. They were almoſt tranſparent, and nearly of the colour of the fluid in which they were ſuſpended; yet, on placing them in a good light, they were found ſufficiently opaque to be diſtinctly examined. Their figure was globoſe, or rather elliptical, ſhaped like a walnut. The largeſt were about an inch and a half in length, and the leaſt as ſmall

as

as the eye could diſcern. Their ſtructure was too delicate to allow them to be examined in any other manner than in their floating ſtate. They were about the ſame weight with ſea water. At their option they could readily aſcend and deſcend in it. And as they have no air-veſſels like fiſhes, they accompliſhed their riſe and fall by a mere change of their ſpecific gravity; contracting themſelves into a ſmaller volume if they wiſhed to ſink, and expanding themſelves to a wider bulk if they intended to ſwim. Before ten o'clock next morning ſeveral of them were evidently dying, and before forty-eight hours had elapſed all of them were dead, and ſo entirely diſorganiſed that not a film or membrane was left but the water, which was a little turbid, had a ſmall mud-like ſediment, and ſmelled ſtrong of phoſphorated hydrogenous gas.

The nearneſs of their approach to pellucidity diſplayed their internal ſtructure to the eye without the trouble of anatomiſing. They might be looked through without the aid of a diſſecting inſtrument; and their blood, though not red, but nearly of the pale colour of their bodies, reflected light enough in the day time to enable it to be ſeen in motion, briſkly circulating through the arterious and venous tubes. This view of the circulation of the blood through the whole economy of a healthy animal, was one of the moſt intereſting appearances in animated phyſiology that I ever had beheld. This creature, like the echinus, and many more, had no heart, but the veſſels were endowed with muſcular power enough to propel their fluids without the aid of ſuch an organ. The pulſations of the arteries could be eaſily counted, and the little waves of the circulating fluid diſtinguiſhed as they paſſed from the larger extremity, where the motion was moſt evident, to the ſmaller, where it was more evaneſcent, and terminated in correſponding veins. In theſe animals the circulation not only proceeds, as in other creatures, one while ſwiftly and at another ſlowly, but, at times, is totally intermitted or ſuſpended, and this, ſeemingly, *ad arbitrium*. Eight large arteries received the pale blood from a common trunk, and conveyed it from one extremity toward the other. They were about equi diſtant, and gave the animal a ſomewhat ſtriped appearance, ſuch as a ſlight intermixture of arſenic imparts to glaſs. The termination of theſe arteries in continuous veins was very plain to be ſeen, until their ramifications upon the parts which appeared to be nutritive viſcera became too minute for ſight, after which the inviſible tubes ſeemed to connect their branches into a common canal, or vena cava, whence the eight arteries before mentioned derived their ſupply.

(To be Continued.)

For the Scots Magazine.

SYNOPSIS OF DR BEATTIE'S ESSAY ON TRUTH.

Sir,

THE following attempt was cauſed by hearing a gentleman read to me that part of Watt's Improvement of the Mind, where he ſays that his common practice was, after having read any book, to make an abridgement of the principal parts of it. It is a firſt attempt, ſo muſt be rude and unpoliſhed as all firſt attempts are. There is a method, a particular proper manner in which people may do a thing a great deal eaſier, and better too, at very little trouble, which is only to be found out by experience, and the benefit of which, a beginner is conſequently deprived.

Dr Beattie in his Eſſay, has ſeveral very long digreſſions, in order to confute the doctrine advanced by David Hume, which though of very great importance to ſociety, and though very

very elegantly written, I did not think it neceſſary to inſert in this ſynopſis.

A definition of truth it is impoſſible to give. What he chiefly wiſhes to ſhew is, that common ſenſe is the judge of reaſon, and that is the criterion of truth.

Dr Beattie has proved this by a great many examples, which I once thought of having given here, but I found it unneceſſary.

I have not altogether taken Dr Beattie's arrangement, I hope that when the attempt is conſidered, and the nature of it, the change will be approved of.

Your inſertion of it, into your very uſeful miſcellany, will oblige

Your Obedient Servant.

C.

Synopſis of Dr Beattie's Eſſay on Truth.

The love of truth has ever been accounted a good principle. Integrity and ſteadineſs, a temper of mind favourable to virtue, are its conſequences.

On hearing a propoſition, ſuch as "The ſun roſe to day," I am conſcious that my mind readily acquieſces in it: I ſay it is true; that is, I conceive it to be conformable to the nature of things.

Before entering particularly into this ſubject, it will be neceſſary, to give an explanation of the meaning of words, which are either in themſelves, or by others, rendered ambiguous. Theſe are unavoidable, not only becauſe they are ſo connected with the ſubject, but becauſe they have no equivalent *unambiguous* terms to ſuit them.

The terms *reaſon* and *common ſenſe*, have various ideas affixed to them; but it will be unneceſſary to give any other ſignification of them, but that in which they are uſed here. *Reaſon* then, denotes that faculty of the mind, by which we perceive a truth by demonſtration. Of this, moſt of the propoſitions in Euclid are examples.

Common ſenſe ſignifies that power of the mind, by which we perceive an intuitive truth, without needing any proof, but that which nature has implanted in us; a conviction that it *muſt be*. Of this the axioms in geometry are examples.

The former is attainable by ſtudy, the latter is not.

The term *Metaphyſic*, whenever it occurs here, with an idea of cenſure attached to it, ſignifies that mode of abſtract inveſtigation, ſupported either wholly by an ambiguous phraſeology, or by that conjoined with a partial experience; which leads to what is inconſiſtent with matter of fact. On the other hand metaphyſic may be applied to the plaineſt account of the faculties of the human mind, and of the principals of morals, and of natural religion; than which, inſtead of deriving cenſure, we account no part of ſcience more ſublime or uſeful.

The method propoſed to be followed here is the following, to prove, 1*ſt*, That all evidence is ultimately intuitive; to exemplify, which we ſhall adduce, 1. Mathematics, 2. Natural philoſophy, 3. Reaſoning from Analogy. 2*dly*, That when we carry any argument beyond the dictates of common ſenſe, we will be led into falſehood; to evidence which we ſhall bring forward the famous diſpute, concerning the non-exiſtence of matter.

I. All evidence is ultimately intuitive.

1. In mathematics, to a perſon who has ſtudied them, this will appear at once: It is by example, not by reaſoning, we ſhall prove this: For there is not a propoſition in Euclid, (upon which the whole ſcience hinges,) which does not reſolve itſelf into ſome axiom, to prove which, by reaſoning, is impoſſible: An axiom is intuitive: We muſt believe it, becauſe it is our nature ſo to do.

2. The ſame maxim will hold equally in natural philoſophy: every thing there being proved by the evidence of ſenſe. We do not reaſon ourſelves into confidence in our ſenſes.

A

A child when it ſees a frightful object, runs from it: now we cannot believe that this child reaſoned itſelf into the belief that that object exiſted: no, it was natural inſtinct that dictated it. It is common ſenſe therefore that dictates to us to believe in our ſenſes: and when this is granted, it will appear manifeſtly that the evidence in this ſcience is ultimately intuitive, our ſenſes being the means by which we come to the knowledge of any fact in it.

3. In reaſoning by analogy the ſame truth will be equally evident: analogical reaſoning is that method of reaſoning, by which we expect that ſimilar cauſes, in ſimilar circumſtances, do, or will probably produce ſimilar effects. In reaſoning from analogy, we argue from a fact or thing experienced, to ſomething of like nature not experienced: and from our view of the former, we form our judgement with reſpect to the latter; which opinion will be found to imply a ſtronger aſſurance, according to the greater ſimilarity of the inſtance from which we argued to that to which we argue. A reaſon why this laſt is the caſe, we cannot give, but experience ſhews that it is ſo; and it alſo ſhews that this aſſurance, ſuch as it is, ariſes immediately in the mind, that is, is intuitive.

II. When we carry any argument beyond the dictates of common ſenſe, we will be led into falſehood.

To illuſtrate this point, we ſhall bring forward the doctrine of non exiſtence of matter, as an example; in which common ſenſe, in the opinion of all competent judges, will be found to have been violated.

We ſhall try to ſhew here, 1. That the non-exiſtence of matter is contradictory to the general belief of all men in all ages. 2. That really to believe and to act from a belief of it, muſt be attended with fatal conſequences to ſcience, and to human ſociety.

1. With regard to the firſt of theſe points, the whole that can be ſaid to evince it is our aſſertion, that with a few exceptions (Pyrrho, &c.) all mankind did believe in the exiſtence of matter. I doubt not but that Pyrrho himſelf, had he ſeen a chariot formidably armed with ſcythes on the highway coming full ſpeed againſt him, laying aſide all thoughts of its being only an idea in his mind, would have jumped into a ditch to ſave himſelf.

2. The ſecond point is as clear, if not more ſo, than the former: To ſcience the conſequences will be that its mode muſt be entirely changed, ſcience having ſome tendency to promote the good of mankind taken as exiſting beings. The codes of ſociety muſt be wholly overturned, if this doctrine were allowed: Every precept of morality bears marks that the exiſtence of matter was taken for granted. "Love thy neighbour as thyſelf," what would be the uſe of this precept, if our neighbours were only ideas? how can one love an idea? there would need to be a new ſet of morals advanced, the ſupports of religion would have to be changed.

We hear fine philoſophers carrying their argument beyond the principles of common ſenſe, and we have found, that by ſo doing they have wandered into error and falſehood; ſo that by ſaying, that by going beyond the dictates of common ſenſe we violate truth, it follows that by taking common ſenſe as the judge of truth, we arrive at truth.

We do not ſuppoſe that all the errors which have ariſen from the not attending to the foundation of truth, are equally dangerous. Some of them may be innocent, to ſuch the laſt of theſe characters cannot belong. If wholly innocent, it is of little conſequence whether we know them to be error or not. If, when any new tenet is advanced, which is contrary to univerſal opinion, its evidence produce a full and clear conviction in the intelligent

intelligent mind, and at the ſame time ſerve to explain the cauſes of the univerſality and long continuance of the old erroneous opinion, the new one ought certainly to be received as true. But if the aſſent produced by the new doctrine be vague, indefinite, and unſatisfactory; if nature and common ſenſe reclaim againſt it, if it recommend modes of thought that are inconceivable, or modes of action that are impracticable; it is not, it cannot be true, however plauſible its evidence may appear.

For the Scots Magazine.

ON LUXURY.

IT is difficult to define luxury accurately. It has been ſaid, that our duty is to live within our income, and that all beyond is luxury. Others again, narrow their deſcription of it ſtill more, we ought, ſay they, to confine ourſelves to the demands of nature, that all beyond this is luxury and extravagance.

Dr Johnſon in his familiar converſation, always oppoſed the clamour againſt luxury. We are indebted to Mr Boſwell for ſome curious arguments on this ſubject, which ſome of your readers will not be ſorry to ſee. On one occaſion, when Dr Goldſmith, expatiated on the common topic, that the race of our people was degenerated, and that this was owing to luxury, Dr Johnſon ſaid, 'Sir, in the firſt place, I doubt the fact. I believe there are as many tall men in England now, as ever there were. But, ſecondly, ſuppoſing the ſtature of our people to be diminiſhed, that is not owing to luxury: for, ſir, conſider to how very ſmall a proportion of our people luxury can reach. Our ſoldiery, ſurely, are not luxurious, who live on ſixpence a day; and the ſame remark will apply to almoſt all the other claſſes. Luxury, ſo far as it reaches the poor, will do good to the race of people; it will ſtrengthen and multiply them. Sir, no nation was ever hurt by luxury; for, as I ſaid before, it can reach but to a very few. I admit, that the great increaſe of commerce and manufactures hurts the military ſpirit of a people; becauſe it produces a competition for ſomething elſe than martial honours—a competition for riches. It alſo hurts the bodies of the people; for you will obſerve, there is no man who works at any particular trade, but you may know him from his appearance to do ſo. One part or other of his body being more uſed than the reſt, he is in ſome degree deformed: but, ſir, that is not luxury. A taylor ſits croſs-legged; but that is not luxury.' *Goldſmith.* 'Come, you are juſt going to the ſame place by another road.' *Johnſon.* 'Nay, ſir, I ſay that is not *luxury*. Let us take a walk from Charing-croſs to Whitechapel, through, I ſuppoſe, the greateſt ſeries of ſhops in the world, what is there in any of thoſe ſhops (if you except gin ſhops) that can do any human being any harm?' *Goldſmith.* 'Well, ſir, I'll accept your challenge. The very next ſhop to Northumberland houſe is a pickle-ſhop.' *Johnſon.* 'Well, ſir; do we not know that a maid, can in one afternoon, make pickles ſufficient to ſerve a whole family for a year? Nay, that five pickle-ſhops can ſerve all the kingdom? Beſides, ſir, there is no harm done to any body by the making of pickles, or the eating of pickles.'

The principal part of this argument certainly is, that the poor have no luxuries, and conſequently the greater part of a nation cannot be affected in their perſons by it. If there be a degeneracy in the ſize of men, the cauſe

must be looked for in their diet, and it is highly probable, that it will not be found that the diet of the lower claſſes is *luxurious*. On the contrary, it will be far more natural to aſcribe degeneracy in ſize or ſtrength to poverty of diet, or what is generally termed poor living, and all living is poor, and incompatible with bodily vigour, where there is a want of animal food.

I find another paſſage, which places the queſtion in a more clear point of view. It is as follows:

'Many things,' ſays this attentive obſerver of human life, 'which are falſe, are tranſmitted from book to book, and gain credit in the world. One of theſe is the cry againſt the evil of luxury. Now the truth is, that luxury produces much good. Take the luxury of buildings in London. Does it not produce real advantages in the conveniency and elegance of accomodation, and all this from the exertion of induſtry? People will tell you, with a melancholy face, how many builders are in goal. It is plain they are in goal, not for building, for rents are not fallen. A man gives half a guinea for a diſh of green peas. How much gardening does this occaſion? how many labourers muſt the competition to have ſuch things early in the market, keep in employment? You will hear it ſaid, very gravely, 'Why was not the half guinea, thus ſpent in luxury, given to the poor? To how many might it have afforded a good meal?' Alas! has it not gone to the *induſtrious* poor, whom it is better to ſupport, than the *idle* poor? You are much ſurer that you are doing good when you *pay* money to thoſe who work, as the recompence of their labour, than when you *give* money merely in charity.'

This is certainly concluſive as to the uſes of luxury. The expenſive entertainments of the luxurious are all provided by the labour and induſtry of hundreds, who gain their livelihood entirely by furniſhing the tables of the rich. The increaſe, for example, of gardeners near London, is immenſe, and ſurely no man will regret the increaſe of hands in an employment ſo much calculated to promote health, and to produce a healthy offspring. In theſe reſpects it will be difficult to mention another employment of equal effect.

I ſhall inſtance only one more opinion. In a company, where the late General Oglethorpe was declaiming againſt luxury, the following converſation took place. *Johnſon.* 'Depend upon it, ſir, every ſtate of ſociety is as luxurious as it can be. Men always take the beſt they can get.' *Oglethorpe.* 'But the beſt depends much on ourſelves; and if we can be as well ſatisfied with plain things, we are in the wrong to accuſtom our palates to what is high ſeaſoned and expenſive. What ſays Addiſon in his Cato, ſpeaking of the Numidian:

Coarſe are his meals, the fortune of the chace,
Amid the running ſtream he ſlakes his thirſt,
Toils all the day, and at the approach of night,
On the firſt friendly bank he throws him down,
Or reſts his head upon a rock till morn;
And if the following day he chance to find
A new repaſt, or an untaſted ſpring,
Bleſſes his ſtars! and thinks it luxury!

'Let us have that kind of luxury, ſir, if you will.' *Johnſon.* 'But hold, ſir; to be merely ſatisfied is not enough. It is in refinement and elegance that the civilized man differs from the ſavage. A great part of our induſtry, and all our ingenuity, is, exerciſed in procuring pleaſure; and ſir, a hungry man has not the ſame pleaſure in eating a plain dinner, that a hungry man has in eating a luxurious dinner. You ſee I put the caſe fairly. A hungry man may have as much, nay, more pleaſure in eating a plain dinner, than a man grown faſtidious

tidious has in eating a luxurious dinner. But I ſuppoſe the man who decides between the two dinners, to be equally a hungry man.'——

Yet ſtill the common cry will recur; how many people there are ruined by luxury? We have ſeen already, that by the conſtitution of ſociety in this country, the proportion of thoſe who can enjoy luxuries, is very ſmall when compared with the great maſs of the people. And if we enquire into the caſes of thoſe who are ruined by luxury, we ſhall find that they were ruined by the purchaſe of luxuries, which they could not afford to pay for; but they might in the ſame circumſtances, have been equally ruined by the purchaſe of hemp, tallow, or iron, or any commodity which they could not afford. If men are ſaid to be ruined by folly and improvidence, it will be found true; but by mere luxury, the luxury of furniture, of the table, or of equipage, very few can be ruined, unleſs they have ſet up an eſtabliſhment far beyond their real or probable means, and that, I think, ought not to be called luxury, but ſwindling.

The following conſiderations, however, will ſerve to rectify our notions on this ſubject, which is certainly of the firſt importance to us as living in a commercial and laborious country.

The argument againſt many of the conveniences of life, drawn from the mere conſideration of their not being neceſſary, was equally proper in the mouth of the ſavage, who diſſuaded from the *firſt* applications of induſtry, as it is in that of the moraliſt, who inſiſts on the vanity of the *laſt*. 'Our anceſtors,' he might ſay, 'found their dwelling under this rock; they gathered their food in the foreſt; they allayed their thirſt from the fountain; and they were clothed in the ſpoils of the beaſts they had ſlain. Why ſhould we indulge a falſe delicacy, or require from the earth fruits, which ſhe is not accuſtomed to yield? The bow of our fathers is already too ſtrong for our arms; and the wild beaſt begins to lord it in the woods *.'

Thus the moraliſt may have found, in the proceedings of every age, thoſe topics of blame, from which he is ſo much diſpoſed to arraign the manners of his own; and our embarraſſment on the ſubject is, perhaps, but a part of that general perplexity, which we undergo, in trying to define moral characters by external circumſtances, which may, or may not, be attended with faults in the mind or heart. One man finds a vice in the wearing of linen; another does not, unleſs the fabrick be fine; and if, in the mean time, it be true, that a perſon may be dreſſed in manufacture, either coarſe or fine; that he may ſleep in the fields, or lodge in a palace; tread upon carpet, or plant his foot on the ground; while the mind either retains, or has loſt, its penetration, and its vigour, and the heart its affection to mankind, it is vain, under any ſuch circumſtance, to ſeek for the diſtinctions of virtue and vice, or to tax the poliſhed citizen with weakneſs for any part of his equipage, or for his wearing a fur, perhaps, in which ſome ſavage was dreſſed before him. Vanity is not diſtinguiſhed by any ſpecies of dreſs. It is betrayed by the diſdain in the fantaſtic aſſortment of his plumes, his ſhells, his party coloured furs, and in the time he beſtows at the glaſs and the toilet. Its projects in the woods and in the town are the ſame: in the one, it ſeeks, with the viſage bedaubed, and with teeth artificially ſtained, for that admiration, which it courts in the other with a gilded equipage, and liveries of ſtate.

Poliſhed nations, in their progreſs, often come to ſurpaſs the rude in moderation, and ſeverity of manners. 'The Greeks,' ſays Thucydides, 'not long ago, like barbarians, wore golden ſpangles in the hair, and went armed

* Ferguſon's Eſſay on the Hiſtory of Civil Society.

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in times of peace.' Simplicity of dreſs in this people, became a mark of politeneſs; and the mere materials with which the body is nouriſhed or cloathed, are probably of little conſequence to any people. We muſt look for the characters of men in the qualities of the mind, not in the ſpecies of their food, or in the mode of their apparel. What are now the ornaments of the grave and ſevere: what is owned to be a real conveniency, were once the fopperies of youth, or were deviſed to pleaſe the effeminate. The new faſhion, indeed, is often the mark of the coxcomb; but we frequently change our faſhions, without increaſing the meaſures of our vanity or folly.

Are the apprehenſions of the ſevere, therefore, in every age, equally groundleſs and unreaſonable? Are we never to dread any error in the article of a refinement beſtowed on the means of ſubſiſtence, or the conveniencies of life? The fact is, that men are perpetually expoſed to the commiſſion of error in this article, not merely where they are accuſtomed to high meaſures of accommodation, or to any particular ſpecies of food, but wherever the objects, in general, may come to be preferred to friends, to a country, or to mankind; they actually commit ſuch error, wherever they admire paltry diſtinctions or frivolous advantages; wherever they ſhrink from ſmall inconveniencies, and are incapable of diſcharging their duty with vigour. The uſe of morality on this ſubject, is not to limit men to any particular ſpecies of lodging, diet, or clothes; but to prevent their conveniencies as the principal objects of human life.

Luxury, therefore, conſidered as a predilection in favour of the objects of vanity, and the coſtly materials of pleaſure, is ruinous to the human character; conſidered as the mere uſe of accommodations and conveniencies which the age has procured, rather depends on the progreſs which the mechanical arts have made, and on the degree in which the fortunes of men are unequally parcelled, than on the diſpoſitions of particular men either to vice or virtue.

Different meaſures of luxury are, however, variouſly ſuited to different conſtitutions of government. The advancement of arts ſuppoſes an unequal diſtribution of fortune; and the means of diſtinction they bring, ſerve to render the ſeparation of ranks more ſenſible. Luxury is, upon this account, apart from all its moral effects, adverſe to the form of democratical government; and in any ſtate of ſociety, can be ſafely admitted in that degree only in which the members of the community are ſuppoſed of unequal rank, and conſtitute public order by means of a regular ſubordination. High degrees of it appear ſalutary, and even neceſſary, in monarchial and mixed governments; where, beſide the encouragement to arts and commerce, it ſerves to give luſtre to thoſe hereditary or conſtitutional dignities, which have a place of importance in the political ſyſtem.

Theſe opinions, I preſume, will enable my reader to form more correct notions than is uſually done upon this ſubject, and eſpecially to thoſe diſtinguiſhed between *luxury* and *vice*, which are often confounded; and it is evident that the evils of luxury may be avoided if, while every man takes as much luxury as he can, he alſo contrive to take no more than will ſuit his circumſtances and ſituation in life.

Verus.

ACCOUNT of the moſt remarkable EXTRANEOUS FOSSILS found in SCOTLAND.

(*Continued from p.* 547)

Entrochi.

I COME now to give you ſome deſcription of a claſs of foſſils more uncommon than any hitherto noticed, and which are of a more dubious origin.

The name *Entrochi* was given by George Agricola, more than two centuries ago, to a claſs of foſſils, the characters of which are not yet well known. They have obtained various names in different quarters as *Screw-ſtones*, *Fairy-beads*, *Witch-beads*, *lime-ſtone-beads*. They have been alſo called *St Cuthberts beads*, from a vulgar opinion, that they were made by that holy man; or becauſe they were uſed in the Roſaries, worn by the devotees of that ſaint. On the continent, theſe foſſils have been known by the name *Nummuli Sancti Boniſacii*. The propriety of the name entrochi is evident, from attending to their conſtruction; for they conſiſt of a great number of beads or whirles, connected with each other by means of ſutures or ſtriæ: when found in the ſtate of detatched beads, they are called *trochite*. They are compoſed of calcareous rhomboidal ſpar, of a lamellated texture, but the lamellæ diverge from the centre of the entrochi, in an oblique direction. The entrochi readily diſſolve in acids, leaving as a reſiduum a little clay or ſelenite. They were conſidered as productions of the antient ocean; but whether they belonged to animals or vegetables, was uncertain. They are now generally thought to be Vertebra of the Encrinus Meduſa, or ſome ſuch animal. Their true hiſtory however is far from being well known.

Entrochi are commonly of a whitiſh grey colour; but in general they partake of the ſame tinge with the ſubſtance in which they are incloſed. The conſtituent parts are a medulla, a cortex, and what may be conſidered as the main body which lies between theſe, reſembling the ligneous part of a plant. The proportion which the medulla bears to the diameter, is not alike in ever ſpecimen, nor are the medulla always of the ſame ſhape; ſome are oblong as delineated plate VIII. fig. 1. in ſome it lies in the direction as at *a*, in others as at *b*. In ſome the medulla is triangular, fig. 3. in others pentangular, &c. &c. as in fig. 4. 5.

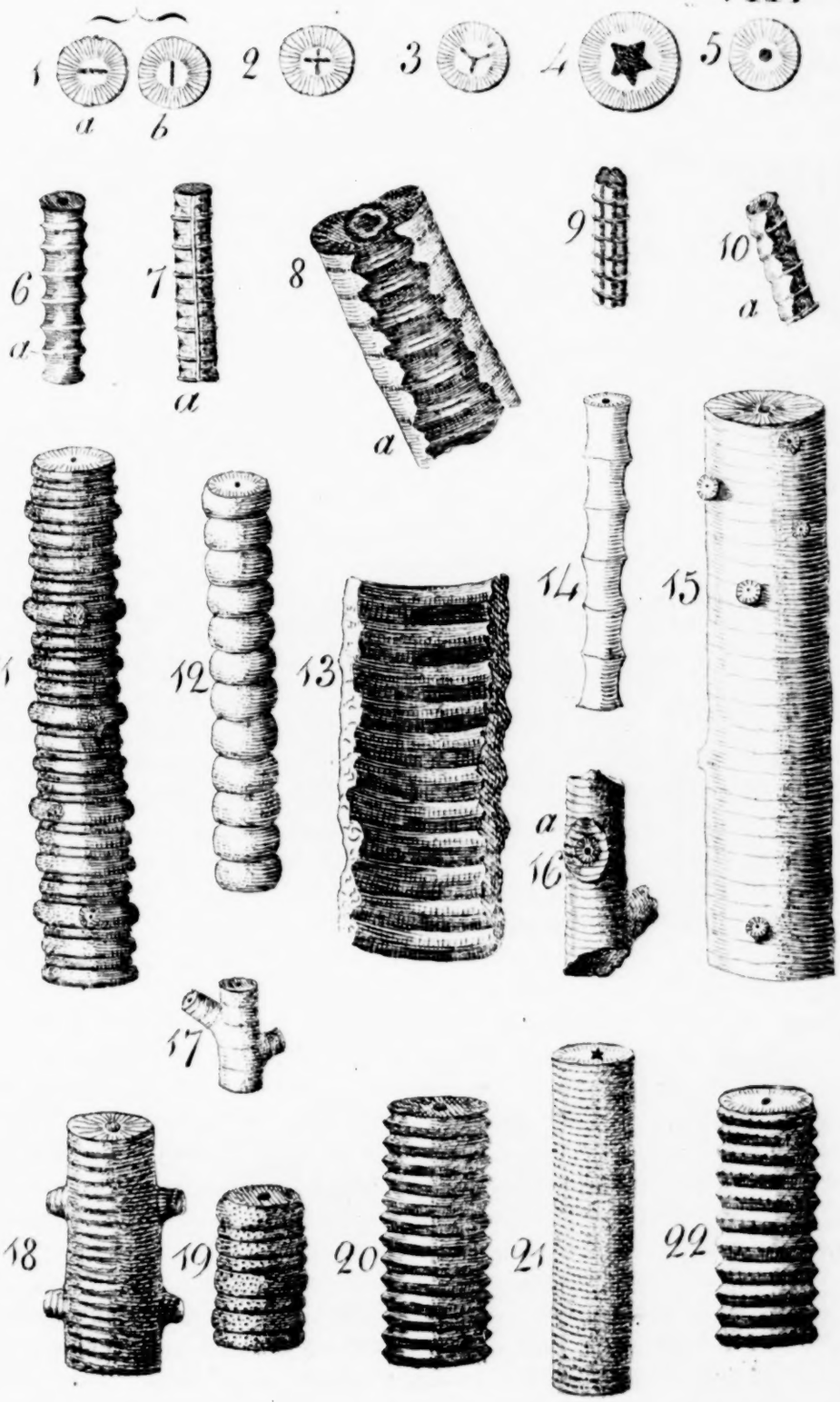
Next to the medulla is the main body: the appearance of which is given fig. 6. 7. and 9. Its proportionable thickneſs is different in different ſpecimens; in general, however, it is about three fourths of the diameter. This prominence enters a correſponding cavity in the cortex. It frequently has two thin plates, and one ſide running the whole length as in fig. 7.

The *cortex* is ſometimes found detached from the other parts, as repreſented fig. 13.

The *ſtriæ*, with which this claſs of foſſils is always ornamented, are moſtly bifurcated and very diſtinct. They are ſcarcely viſible in fractures newly made; and it is hardly poſſible to diſlocate the beads from one another without injuring their ſtructure; and beſides, their fractures are ſeldom horizontal or in the direction we ſhould look for it, but extremely irregular.

As vaſt numbers of theſe beads are found in a ſeparate detached ſtate, without any apparent injury in the moſt minute ſtriæ, (a very curious circumſtance) and as it is impoſſible to make ſuch a ſeparation in their preſent ſtate, it follows that theſe diſlocations were made prior to the time when the entrochi became foſſil. It would appear too that the ſeparation was made with great eaſe, as the fineſt have no marks of injury.

Entrochi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Entrochi are of a variety of sizes from the thickness of a pin, to an inch in diameter; and some specimens are five inches long. They are found lying in fragments, confusedly in every direction. They are imbedded in limestone, till, and clay, sometimes in free-stone.

Some specimens we find have Brachia. These create a considerable variety, some make acute, others right angles with the stem. The greatest number are sparse, but some are opposite to each other. These brachia penetrate deeper than the cortex, but do not reach the medulla. Some are confined to one of the beads only, others extend over several. The reader will be best able to form an idea of all the varieties mentioned, by examining the plate.

The varieties of the medulla are exhibited from fig. 1. to 9.

The cortex is exhibited in fig. 8. — 10. In fig. 13. the cortex is represented as detached from the other parts. The concave surface, which in the figure is exposed to view, and is full of ridges and furrows is wholly covered with lines or sutures, answering to corresponding ones in the main body.

The varieties of the Brachiæ are represented in figures 15. 16. 17. and 18. The peculiarities of the whirls may be traced on figures 11. 12. 13. 14. and 20. 21. and 22.

(*To be Continued.*)

DESCRIPTION OF THE CITY OF ST PETERSBURGH.

From Storch's Picture of St Petersburgh.

ACCORDING to the calculation of the academician Krafft, St Petersburgh, on an average of ten years, has annually 97 bright days, 104 of rain, 72 of snow, and 93 unsettled. There are every year from twelve to sixty-seven storms, which sometimes, when they proceed from the west, occasion inundations. From an experience of more than sixty years, the ice of the Neva (the Thames of Petersburgh) never breaks up before the 25th of March, and never later than the 27th of April: the earliest time of its freezing is the 20th of October, and the latest the 1st of December. Since the year 1741, the greatest degree of heat has been 27, and the greatest degree of cold 33, by Reaumur's thermometer.

We see from this survey, how few days in the year can be enjoyed out of doors in these climates, and how limited are the pleasures of our summers. The winter is our best season, and possesses great advantages over his wet and foggy brethren in more southern countries. An equal permanent cold strengthens and recruits the body. The excellent sledge roads render travelling commodious and agreeable: a winter journey, in a moderate frost, on moonlight nights, is an enjoyment only to be known in these climates. The Russians, accustomed to hardships, seem to revive at the entrance of winter: and even foreigners are here more insensible to cold than in their native country. However, it must be confessed that none know better how to defend themselves against its effects than the people here. On the approach of winter the double windows are put up in all the houses, having the joints and interstices caulked and neatly pasted with the border of the paper with which the room is hung. This precaution not only protects against cold and wind, but secures a free prospect even in depth of winter, as the panes of glass are thus never incrusted with ice. The outer door, and frequently the floors under the carpets are covered with felt. Our stoves, which from their size and construction, consume indeed a great quantity of wood, produce a temperature in the most spacious apartments and public halls which annihilates all thoughts of winter.

On

On leaving the room we arm ourselves ſtill more ſeriouſly againſt the ſeverity of the cold. Caps, furs, boots lined with flannel, and a muff, make up the winter dreſs. It is diverting to ſee the coloſſal caſes in the antichamber, out of which in a few minutes the moſt elegant beaux are unfolded. The common Ruſſian cares only about warm wrappers for his legs and feet, provided with a plain ſheep-ſkin *ſhuba*, the drivers and itinerant tradeſmen frequent the ſtreets all day, with their bare necks and frozen beards. In a froſt of five and twenty degrees, it is common to ſee women ſtanding for hours together rinſing their linen through holes in the ice of the canals.

The winter increaſes the neceſſaries of life, and they are multiplied by luxury. To theſe belong the winter clothing, fuel and candles. That people here run into great expences in the article of furs may be well imagined; and the faſhion varies ſo often that a man muſt be in more than moderate circumſtances to be able to follow it. The conſumption of wood is enormous. In the kitchens, bagnios and ſervants' rooms, which are heated like bagnios, there is an incredible waſte of this prime neceſſary of life in our climates. Upon a moderate computation here are annually conſumed upward of two hundred thouſand faſhoms (a faſhom is ſeven feet) amounting in ſpecie to about half a million of rubles. (A ruble is 4s. 6d.) This formidable conſumption, and the riſing price of wood, are highly deſerving of patriotic attention. The expence in tallow and wax candles is proportionably as large. Throughout the long winter we live in an almoſt everlaſting night, as our ſhorteſt day is only five hours and a half. In houſes conſtructed on a faſhionable ſtyle, the wax candles, as in England, are lighted long before dinner.

The ſpring is ſo ſhort, that it ſcarcely need be reckoned among the ſeaſons. March and April are generally pleaſant months on account of the number of bright days in them, but the air is ſtill keen, and the Neva frequently ſtill covered with ice. In May the ſcene ſuddenly changes: the winter dreſs entirely vaniſhes, but cold northerly winds keep off the balmy ſpring. We are now, by a ſudden tranſition, thrown at once into ſummer; the exiſtence whereof is likewiſe of ſhort duration; ſcarcely come on, ſcarcely enjoyed, ere it flies away

et mox bruma recurrit iners.

Short, however, as our ſummer is, it is not without its pleaſures: and perhaps it is here the more ſatisfactorily enjoyed for the very reaſon of its being ſo ſhort. On meeting the firſt ſmiles of the returning ſun, all hie to the adjacent villas, where the genial ſeaſon glides away too ſoon in hoſpitality and ſocial amuſements. Among the peculiar charms of the ſummer here, are to be reckoned the bright and generally warm nights. The faint rays of the ſcarcely ſetting ſun tinge the horizon with a ruddy hue, and beautify the ſurrounding objects: the noiſy buſtle of the ſtreets is departed, though not into a death-like ſilence, but converted into that idle occupation, which is even more voluptuous than repoſe: walking parties are met every where, frequently attended by muſic: on the ſmooth ſurface of the Neva, and on all the canals, boats are gliding, from which reſounds the ſimple melody of the popular ballads, as ſung by the watermen—beguiled by the novelty and delightfulneſs of the ſcene, and in the expectation of the coming night, by an agreeable ſurpriſe we find ourſelves cheated of our ſleep, when the firſt beams of the ſun are gilding the tops of the houſes. I have never yet known a ſingle foreigner, who was inſenſible to the firſt enjoyment of theſe ſummer nights.

But ah! to what ſcenes do theſe voluptuous moments lead! to the ſhort ſummer ſucceeds an autumn, which by

its

its numberleſs unpleaſant concomitants effaces all remembrance of its few fine days. About this ſeaſon of the year Peterſburgh becomes one of the moſt hideous corners of the earth. The horizon for ſeveral weeks is overſpread with dark heavy clouds, impervious to the ſolar rays, reducing the already ſhortened days to a mere diſmal twilight: while the inceſſant rains, in ſpite of the newly conſtructed ſewers, render the ſtreets ſo dirty, that it is impoſſible for well dreſſed perſons to walk there comfortably; and, to complete the picture of an autumnal evening, ſtorms and tempeſts frequently come on.

THE PEOPLE.

The Peterſburghers are on the whole (as far as ſo general a characteriſtic can be true) a large, compact, ſtrong, luſty caſt of people. The influence of climate on the form and organization, which, as accurate obſervers have already remarked, appears to be the caſe throughout the north, is here likewiſe viſible, without pretending to the gift of phyſiognomical divination. However beautiful the moulds may be in which the human figures here are caſt, they are nevertheleſs deficient in that ſharp determinate contour, which plaſtic nature ſeems to draw with ſo firm a hand beneath a milder and more genial ſky. Even the nobleſt ground-lines but faintly riſe from the luxuriant maſſes of fleſh, in the elaſtic tumidity whereof the finer ſketches and the gentle play of the muſcles are overpowered and loſt. If thoſe advantages could compenſate for theſe defects, they are compenſated: for finer fleſh, more beautiful ſkin, and more charming complexion, no where can perhaps be ſeen. The general taſte, which alſo here, as every where elſe, derives the laws of the beautiful from the models of elegant nature, ſeems to inſiſt on theſe properties as eſſential requiſites to beauty, and it is probable that the moſt perfect Grecian figure would not be admired in our circles, if unfortunately without ruddy cheeks, and would not abſolutely preſume, on account of certain advantages, to ſet up a rivalſhip with the Hebes of antiquity. This taſte is ſo fixed and ſo general, that in the Ruſſian language the ideas of *red*, *beautiful*, and *paint*, have only one term by which they are expreſſed: and it is therefore highly pardonable if our ladies here, both of high and low condition, endeavour to heighten the charms of nature where ſhe has acted parſimoniouſly toward them in the diſtribution of this preſent. In all great cities that I know, paint is in uſe among the ladies of faſhion, but here it is carried further, as every peaſant's wife and daughter paints her cheeks as well as the counteſs, not for the ſake of being in the faſhion, but in order to be handſome. What ladies can lay on more paint than the wives of the Ruſſian merchants, as they waddle along under the burden of their pampered, ſleek, and ſhining collops of fat, bedizened with all the magnificence that pearls and lace can beſtow!

The men are not only on the whole more handſome than the women, but the former approaches nearer to the abſtract idea of the fineſt human ſhape. Among the officers of the guards, and more frequently from the country folks that come hither from the provinces, are ſeen many buſts that might, without diſparagement, be put in competition with the Antinous. In Germany where the general judgement concerning perſonal beauty is not very different from that which here prevails, we may often be witneſſes to the approbation which the ladies beſtow on the travelling Ruſſians in this reſpect. They commonly, however, ſoon loſe the beautiful outline here, ſince the men, as well as the women, are from various cauſes, much inclined to grow fat.

HONESTY OF TRADESMEN.

Great as the ſecurity of Peterſburgh

is in regard to acts of open violence, yet it is neceſſary for every one to be upon his guard againſt artful impoſtures and deep laid ſtratagems. The frequent inſtances of this kind make the Ruſſian wary, and therefore they are not ſo eaſily made the dupes of their countrymen: but ſo much the more do they make up for this at the expence of ſtrangers and foreigners, particularly when they are not acquainted with the language of the country. The ſhopkeepers and merchants commonly aſk three times, and frequently even five times as much as the commodity is worth: the unknowing offer the half, and think they have made a good bargain, till they find, when too late, that they have been miſerably cheated. To give damaged goods a fair appearance, to defraud in meaſure and weight in an imperceptible manner, to ſlip bad goods among thoſe that have been bought and ordered home; all theſe and a multitude of other tricks, no dealers in the world underſtand better than the Ruſſian. As the Ruſſians in general are ſupriſingly cunning and of quick parts, they are eminently addicted to this ſpecies of induſtry, and the pickpockets of Peterſburgh and Moſcow may ſafely lay wagers on their dexterity with thoſe of Paris and London.

Some time ſince the following affair happened at Moſcow, which excited great curioſity both there and at the reſidence; and, on account of its originality, deſerves to be noticed while we are on this ſubject. A wealthy nobleman, well known as a fancier of precious ſtones, fell accidentally in company with a perſon unknown to him, who wore on his finger a ring of great beauty and value. After a long diſcourſe on its real worth, the nobleman offered him a conſiderable price for it; which the ſtranger at firſt refuſed, on the reaſonable ground that he had no deſire to part with it. At length, however, to evade the repeated importunities of the nobleman, he declared that he could not ſell it, becauſe—the ſtones were *not genuine*. This declaration filled all the company, among whom were connoiſſeurs, with amazement. The nobleman, in order to be ſure of the matter, deſired to have the ring for a few days againſt ſufficient ſecurity; received it, and ran from one jeweller to another, who all unanimouſly pronounced the ſtones to be genuine and of great value. With this aſſurance, and the hope of a good bargain, he brought back the ring to its owner, who, on receiving it, put it, with great indifference, into his waiſtcoat pocket. The negociation now began afreſh: the ſtranger perſiſted in his reſolution, till at length the nobleman offered a ſum which was pretty near the true value of it. 'This ring,' returned the ſtranger, 'is a token of friendſhip: but I am not rich enough to reject ſo large a ſum as you offer for it, yet this high offer is the very reaſon of my not complying. How can you, if you are thoroughly conſcious of what you are doing, offer ſo much money for a ring, which the owner himſelf confeſſes to be made up of falſe ſtones?'—'If your determination depends only on that,' replied the buyer, 'here, take at once the ſum,' (laying it in bank notes on the table) 'and I call the gentlemen here to witneſs, that I voluntarily, and after due conſideration, pay it.' The ſeller took the money, and gave the nobleman the ring, repeating the declaration, that the ſtones were falſe, and that it was ſtill time to make the bargain void. The latter obſtinately refuſed to hearken to his advice, haſtened joyfully home, and found—what the reader has already gueſſed—that the ſtranger had ſaid what was too true. Inſtead of the genuine ring, he had a falſe one made exactly like the other. The affair was brought into a court of juſtice; but as the ſeller proved, that during the whole buſineſs there was no queſtion at all a-

bout genuine ſtones; that the purchaſer expreſsly treated only for a falſe ring, and he on the other hand ſold him only a falſe ring: the judge was accordingly obliged to pronounce in favour of the latter.

The arts of cheating in the articles of proviſions are no where better underſtood than here. Ordinary deceptions of this nature happen in every place: but when one looks at a fowl, which to all appearance is finely fattened, and finds it only filled with wind; or aſparagus, deprived of their eatable part, pointed again and coloured with a tempting verdure; no man will call theſe ordinary tricks.

A lady, who had not been long come out of Germany, and had heard much from her acquaintance at Peterſburgh of the many artifices of this nature practiſed in that city, took the reſolution to uſe the utmoſt caution in all her dealings, in order to refute the common opinion, that every ſtranger muſt buy his wiſdom. Several days paſſed; one morning however a vender of ſmall articles about the ſtreets entered her apartment, and offered her a pound of tea the laſt remains of what he had to ſell. She weighed the parcel and found it juſt; ſhe made a trial; the tea was unadulterated, and well flavoured: ſhe ſhook it all out into a baſon; no deceit was diſcoverable. She enquired the price, and offered the third part of what he aſked: the vender was naturally not ſatisfied with this offer; turned his tea back again into the box, wrapped a cloth about it and crammed it into his boſom. At length the bargain was ſtruck, and the commodity delivered: however, prudence does no harm; the lady opened the box, and ſaw the tea ſhe had bought. She ſhut it up, to the great joy of the ſeller, who in the mean time had aſked her ſmiling, why ſhe was ſo extremely cautious, and why ſhe had ſo very bad an opinion of his honeſty. The money was paid; the man went his way; and ſome days after the box was found full of ſand and grains, excepting the ſurface, which was really good tea.

EGYPTIAN ANTIQUITIES.

THE Eaſt India Company has received from their agent, at Bagdad, twelve bricks of thoſe which are ſtill remaining near Hilla, on the Euphrates, on the ſpot where the ancient Babylon, according to Major Rennel, and other geographers, is ſuppoſed to have ſtood. On theſe bricks characters are engraved perfectly ſimilar to thoſe which are found in Perſia on the ruins of Chehilminar, about a day's journey from Shiraz, and commonly called Perſepolitan. Theſe characters, which have already been noticed by Le Bruyn, Kæmpfer, Niebuhr, and others, have hitherto been reckoned peculiar to theſe ruins, being only found on blocks of marble or on gems dug up there. By the diſcovery, however of the preſent bricks, it has been proved that they were uſed alſo in other parts, having been found among the ruins of the ancient capital of the Chaldæa. Beſides, having received by this means more copious ſpecimens of that ſpecies of writing, it will become eaſier to decide whether theſe characters are of the alphabetic, or ſyllabic, or hieroglyphic kind, whether they ought to be read from the right to the left, horizontally or perpendicularly, from the top or from the bottom. Perhaps each word may be expreſſed by a particular group, like thoſe ancient characters of the Chineſe publiſhed lately in London by the learned Dr Hagar, where, inſtead of *nails*, like thoſe now made uſe of, leaves, flowers, bracelets, ſnakes, and other repreſentations, are employed, arranged in different poſitions to expreſs different words.

For the Scots Magazine.

STRICTURES ON IRVING'S LIFE OF FERGUSSON.

By James Inverarity.

THOUGH the ſuffrage of the public had early ranked the unfortunate Fergusſon with the moſt eminent poetical characters of his country, yet it was not till of late that any account of his life, which can be entitled to the name, was given to the world.

The celebrity of his works has been enhanced by the enthuſiaſtic encomiums of kindred genius, and the candid deciſions of judicious criticiſm *. It may alſo be indebted for ſome ſhare of its increaſe to the lapſe of time, which, while it obſcures the common tranſactions of life, dignifies genius, and thereby excites curioſity reſpecting perſonal hiſtory, the more difficult in that caſe to be gratified, the more ardent it becomes.

Circumſtances in the life of Fergusſon, the detail of which would have preſſed hard upon the feelings of his relations, we may believe, ſuſpended the biographic pen, ready to have done juſtice to his melancholy ſtory, till time ſhould either weaken the impreſſions of ſorrow, which his misfortunes had ſtamped upon their minds, or remove from the ſtage of life thoſe who cheriſhed his memory with the moſt pious affection. The laſt objection, if it is to be regarded as ſuch, has, in part, been long obviated. The mother of Fergusſon lies mouldering with her ſon: but thoſe who could claim no connection with the poet but that of friendſhip, judging of the feelings of his ſurviving relations by the poignancy of their own, have declined, through delicacy, a taſk for which, perhaps, they alone were qualified. By thoſe whom he numbered as his friends, his life might have been exhibited in a manner honourable to his memory; for though it has been ſaid that it was too ſhort and too little diverſified to afford much materials for the detail of the biographer, yet it was eventful, and in ingenious hands might have been rendered at once inſtructive and entertaining; if the view of a life, in which ſo much ſorrow predominated, can be ſaid to be capable of producing any ſenſations that are not ſorrowful.

We might not then have traced him through the ſucceſſive periods of his life with no other feelings than thoſe of pity and curioſity, which his misfortunes and his poetry excite. We might have beheld him in the convivial circles of ſocial life, where the magic of his wit, and the charms of his colloquial talents, faſcinated and delighted more than the ingenious effuſions of his muſe; and what recollection could have ſaved from the wreck of time, might have animated, and rendered pleaſing the page that is now ſo dull and unintereſting.

The principal biographer of Fergusſon was certainly unqualified for thus executing his taſk. From his years he could never have been perſonally acquainted with the poet; and his information, we have reaſon to believe, was partly received from others not much leſs ignorant of him than himſelf. For the poverty of his work this may be regarded as ſome apology; but it offers none for its illiberality. Where evidence was wanting, he has not ſcrupled to ſubſtitute probability for certainty; and that in a way which at once diſcredits the biographer, and degrades the man, in the ſuppoſition of vice.

If information received from the friends of Fergusſon might be ſuſpected as partial to his virtues; that which iſſued from thoſe to whom he was perſonally unknown, may, with much reaſon, be dreaded as partial to his vices. Of his failings they muſt have heard, and heard them, perhaps, exaggerated partly from malevolence, and partly from the propenſity of mankind to aſtoniſh; while his virtues, leſs induſtriouſly reported, eſcaped their notice, becauſe the ſphere in which they moved afforded them no opportunity of witneſſing the benevolence of his diſpoſition, or experiencing the goodneſs of his heart.

The evil that men do lives after them,
The good is oft interred with their bones.

Shakſpear's Julius Cæſar.

* Dr Currie's Burns, vol. 1ſt, Comparative eſtimate of the genius of Ramſay, Fergusſon, and Burns.

Of thoſe who knew his virtues and applauded them, the number is always decreaſing; and as eſteem is leſs eaſily impreſſed than wonder communicated, the knowledge of his irregularities, which were remarkable only as they were connected with particular circumſtances, will continue, while the memory of his better actions will, if unrecorded, periſh with thoſe who kindly retain it.

It is not then to be wondered at, that the character of Fergusſon ſhould have received an unfavourable caſt from a writer not well acquainted with his proper ſources of intelligence, nor perhaps over ſcrupulous to reject any information which, however much its original purity might be contaminated by the ſucceſſive efforts of ignorance and folly, promiſed to his indolence, or his inability, an eaſy method of giving bulk to his work without the labour of ſentiment.

The profeſſed intention of thoſe who pourtray the human character is, or ought to be, the promotion of virtue; and when this is effected they have laboured with judgment, and have not laboured in vain. But all, whoſe intentions were good, have not been alike ſucceſsful, and while ſociety has ſometimes been little benefited, individuals have been injured, by the officious exertions of an unſkilful biographer.

Whether from internal evidence, or external obſervation, it is difficult to ſay, but ſome have entertained an opinion which, if juſt, is unfavourable to human nature, that the repreſentation of vice is the beſt antidote to vice, and that it deters more from poſitive evil, than the image of virtue allures to poſitive good. This may be true, and the method might be practiſed were there none better to be found. It merely ſuſpends the mind in a neutral ſtate between virtue and vice; but he, doubtleſs, is the beſt teacher of moral wiſdom who makes the repreſentation of the one precede that of the other, and thus, by a judicious contraſt, raiſes hatred that he may the more effectually conciliate eſteem.

That the latter opinion has been that of every biographer, the conduct of ſome gives us no reaſon to believe. He whoſe character is delineated by ſuch will be likely to receive but little juſtice. His faults will be enumerated with all the amplifications of language, and his virtues, if mentioned at all, will be compreſſed within the limits of a few laconic periods. Unhappy, if his miſconduct be not the effect of ignorance; for, while cenſure is awarded, no account will be taken of the force of temptation, or paſſion; nor will pity relax the ſeverity of the critic, though he ſhould conſider that the object of his reſentment is ſelf-convicted, ſelf-tormented, one on whom the reproaches of the world can inflict but little puniſhment, ſince conſcience accuſes him before a more awful tribunal.

Theſe are reflections which a regard for the good of ſociety overbears. To thoſe who feel not the ſame compunction for their faults, reproof may be efficacious if it can be ſelf appropriated; vice may reſign its place to virtue, or it may be reſtrained by the fear of like ſhame; and miſconduct may be rectified by the detail of miſfortunes which, if long continued, it will more or leſs always produce.

It is ſurely needleſs to ſay, that all this may be effected without the ſacrifice of truth or feeling: without one ſtruggle between the love of virtue and the love of juſtice. The ſtudent, who contemplates human nature through the medium of books, is not confined to real biography alone for pictures of life, for maxims of prudence, or examples of various character. Numerous works of fiction, and, not the leaſt among theſe, the biography of periodical compoſitions, exhibit to the world characters which itſelf has furniſhed, for approbation or diſlike; to be imitated, or to be avoided; and learning has ſeldom been better employed, than in thus drawing within the range of the intellectual eye, all the diverſities of human conduct, and ſhewing the influence they have in producing the happineſs and miſery of life. It is the peculiar advantage of the writers of theſe compoſitions that they poſſeſs an unlimited choice of ſubjects, which each can modify to his manner of inculcating morality, without departing from truth, or violating juſtice. The world is before them in all its modes of civil and domeſtic life, its infinite gradations of virtue and vice, of wiſdom and folly; from theſe incidents

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are ſelected, and traits of character and manners combined, to form general portraits of mankind, which, as they diſplay a more extenſive knowledge of human nature than can be gleaned from contemplation confined to a ſolitary individual, will find, more readily, their archetypes in the world; if not in general reſemblance, yet in particular features; and from partial conviction, the reſult of feeling or obſervation, will proceed general belief, and general utility.

Such are the common advantages of works of fiction. In ſome reſpects, they will be found ſuperior, and in others, inferior to works of truth. To the biography of eminent men we bring a mind which previous curioſity has awakened to attention, and on which conviction will act more forcibly, ſince every avenue, that might admit doubt, is guarded by the attendance of truth. The good and bad of character as they are ſubject to little reſtriction, will ſeldom be repreſented but as they are found, and what ſtimulates to the practice of the one too often ſecretly excites to that of the other. The ambition which leads us to aſpire to the mental accompliſhments of him whoſe genius commands our admiration, will lead us to imitate whatever he aſſociates with them; his bad as well as his good qualities; for the praiſe of the latter uniting with the admiration of his talents, will either overpower the cenſure of the firſt, or ſuffer it to be but feebly heard. Hence ariſes the difficulty of delineating with candour and ſucceſs the characters of thoſe whom genius has exalted above the crowd; whoſe names lay hold of the public mind; and whoſe hiſtory, from the high degree of intereſt which they excite, ſeems to afford to the moraliſt an excellent vehicle for the conveyance of truth.

To preſerve the hiſtory of thoſe who have been eminent for their talents is, however, a duty which the laudable curioſity of mankind, and the intereſts of literature will never ſuffer to remain unperformed. It is the memorial of deſert, to ſecure which, the induſtry of many an author has been urged to freſh exertions of genius; and the mind invigorated with new motives to virtue. The biographer who tranſmits this memorial to poſterity ſhould conſider well the difficulty of his taſk, and whether it be in his power to ſtimulate genius without impairing the virtues of the heart.

That in the hiſtory of ſome men, there are facts which muſt be ſuppreſſed, and others that require the full inveſtigation of truth, will not be denied by thoſe who admit the utility of biographical compoſitions. Virtue has not always been the companion of wit; and vice has not always ſullied the page of him in whoſe life it has predominated. Indiſcriminate narration would be here improper. An antidote is required to the luſcious poiſon of vicious amuſement, and it is furniſhed by the biographer in his detail of the guilt, and conſequent miſery of its author. But while the good of ſociety demands that much ſhould be told, it alſo requires that ſomething be concealed, and that curioſity is not to be gratified at the expence of virtue. He who has injured the world by the licentiouſneſs of his conduct, makes ſome atonement for his guilt, when he endeavours to inſtruct, by his writings, thoſe whom, by his example, he has depraved; to enlighten the reaſon he has obſcured; and to lead to truth from the mazes of error, which himſelf has formed. And in his laudable endeavour, he will have this hope to animate him, that the power of his inſtructions will be felt and acknowledged where and when that of his example is, and may always be unknown; and, that though he has made ſome vicious, he may yet make many virtuous. To limit, in any meaſure, this hope will never be the work of virtue enlightened by knowledge; though it is to be feared, it has ſometimes been effected by ignorance, when the goodneſs of the intention it would be uncharitable to call in queſtion.

To theſe two claſſes of authors may be added a third, whoſe compoſitions, though they cannot be ranked with works of morality, (as they are more the offſpring of fancy, than of judgement, and are better calculated to entertain than to inform) are yet not devoid of inſtruction. With this claſs, may be ranked the unfortunate Ferguſſon, whoſe works have afforded his countrymen no little amuſement, the innocence of which could never have allowed them to harbour a ſuſpicion of the prejudice of his character. How

much of his hiſtory then it would be prudent to relate, ought to have been the inquiry of his biographer, had he not been inclined to make any conceſſions to the feelings of his relations. But judgment was wanting to prompt him to ſuch an inquiry; and in candour and ſenſibility he was ſurely no leſs deficient, elſe he would rather have fallen ſhort of, than have overleapt the boundaries of truth.

Of the character of Fergusſon, truth, exerting its utmoſt ſeverity, could certainly have much ſhaded the *picture*; but it has been blackened by miſrepreſentation without affording the proſpect of any good it may produce, to compenſate the writer for his deviation from truth, the quality the moſt eſſential to the reputation of his work. Nor will his narrative, diveſted of its miſrepreſentation, ſerve much to recommend him to the world, ſince little kindneſs will be felt for him, who recalls recollections, or communicates knowledge, which all, whoſe kindneſs is to be eſteemed, will wiſh ſhould be forgotten or unknown; which but weaken the force of inſtruction, or cloud the brow of innocent mirth.

The name of Fergusſon had long awakened in the minds of his countrymen ſentiments of admiration and pity: his irregularities, which inflicted few feelings of abhorrence, were forgotten in his misfortunes by thoſe to whom truth detailed the actions of his life; or, if remembered, they were palliated by charity without the cenſure of injuſtice. But the truth and charity which operate only in the narrow ſphere of perſonal knowledge, can but partially counteract the wide-ſpreading evils of biographical miſrepreſentation and malevolence. Thoſe, to whom Fergusſon is known only by his works, muſt ceaſe, upon a peruſal of Irving's account of his life, to regard him with admiration unmixed with contempt, if the ſame means be not employed by which falſehood has propagated error, to diffuſe the deciſions of truth where no appeal can be made to living evidence.

The writer, who in theſe pages addreſſes the public, truſts he will not be convicted of unjuſt partiality while he endeavours to ſhield the character of his relation from the illiberal attacks of his biographer, nor be found to give ſuſpicion reaſon to think that the motives which induced him to attempt it were any other than thoſe which can be honourably juſtified.

However much he has reaſon to be offended at the behaviour of Mr Irving, as it regards himſelf, it would here be imprudent, he thinks, to reſent it, and unfair were he to ſuffer it to prevent him from granting the biographer all the indulgence which juſtice will admit.

There is, it muſt be allowed, a ſeverity in cenſure which may be juſtified, as there is a lenity in palliation which may be condemned. Extenuation, beyond certain limits, magnifies the obſtacles to virtue, and may therefore be avoided by thoſe who cannot determine its propriety to a fixed point, and who juſtly prefer public to individual intereſt. If reaſons, cogent as theſe, can juſtify Irving's ſeverity, no excuſe can be urged for the imputation of vices on the preſumption of probability. He who, entering upon life, ſcans with ſeverity the actions of thoſe around him, if he cannot be freed from cenſure, may claim the indulgence due to unavoidable ignorance of mankind; but the ſuſpicions of inexperience betray a latent badneſs of heart not to be eradicated by time, and which none will be inclined to pardon becauſe all are expoſed to its malevolence.

The follies of him whom genius has diſtinguiſhed from the bulk of mankind, ſeldom receive the cenſure of juſtice, but are either leſſened by admiration or magnified by envy. The worſt motives to detraction are often concealed under the fictitious appearance of candour and virtue. The critic of moral character, while he expoſes vice with the ſeemingly pureſt intentions, ſoothes the pain of his own intellectual inferiority, with the thought of riſing ſuperior to genius in the ſcale of moral rectitude; and, without the riſk of ſelf-involvement, cenſures faults from which he may be happily freed by the bluntneſs of his feelings, and for which, therefore, he can have no claim on the compaſſion of others.

It is not the preſent writer's intention to decide upon the motives which induced Irving to become the biographer of Fergusſon; nor does he think it neceſſary to point out all the illiberalities

ralities of his work; some of which are too obvious not to be discovered, and too contemptible not to be despised. Its more specious errors, into which candour itself might be betrayed, it will however be proper to expose.

Whatever be Irving's merit, it is evident that to the task of the biographer, he has brought in his age an almost insurmountable obstacle to success. What objections will not prejudice raise to the pretensions of a *juvenile biographer and critic*? Supernatural knowledge must be decreed him, before he assume without presumption the office of experience, or arrogate without vanity the superior sagacity of him who directs the opinions of others.

Of the merits and defects of his work no estimate is here intended to be made. To whatever verdict the public may be pleased to pronounce on his performance, the author, in his dedication, has promised, to submit without repining; and that their verdict may not be the result of partial investigation, or slight evidence, the writer of this has, with due respect, chosen to offer them whatever he is acquainted with, in the life of Fergusson, which appears to militate against his biographer.

From biographical facts, which rest upon indubitable authority, the reader must estimate the character of the man; yet how justly, it is unnecessary to say, if the facts stated be not connected with their relative causes and circumstances. Much is in that case left to the caprice of suspicion, and of those who form conclusions where nothing can be conclusive; there will not be wanting some who, passing on the side of vice the bounds of probability, will entertain opinions unworthy of themselves and of the character they investigate.

In the perplexity of doubt the reader is involved while he peruses Irving's account of the expulsion of Fergusson from the University of St Andrew's, a fact which pretended zeal for virtue has perhaps imprudently divulged, and the reproach of which (if it can inflict reproach) ignorance has aggravated.

For the investigation of the cause and circumstances of that disagreeable affair, it is with pride that the writer of these pages acknowledges his obligations to the kindness of Principal Hill, and Professor Vilant of St Andrew's. The politeness of these gentlemen he will ever remember with the liveliest pleasure; while the regard they have shewn for the reputation of Fergusson will add, to the respect for their conspicuous attainments, the esteem of every lover of science and of literature. Dr Wilkie was not the only patron of Fergusson. In Professor Vilant, it is said, he found a friend, and a judicious director of his studies.

St Andrew's, January 29. 1801.

The university of St Andrew's keep no record of the censures inflicted upon young men during the course of their studies, because they are willing to hope, that future good behaviour will atone for the improprieties of early days. But as an inquiry has been made on the part of the relations of Mr Robert Fergusson, whether he was expelled from this university, Mr Nicholas Vilant, professor of mathematics, the only person now in the university who was then a member of it, declares, for their satisfaction, that in the year 1767, as he recollects, at the first institution of the prizes given by the Earl of Kinnoul, late chancellor of this university, there was a meeting one night after the determination of the prizes for that year, of the winners in one room of the United College, and a meeting of the losers in another room at a small distance; that in consequence of some communication between the winners and the losers, a scuffle arose, which was reported to the masters of the College, and that Robert Fergusson and some others who had appeared the most active were expelled; but that the next day, or the day thereafter, they were all received back into the College upon promises of good behaviour for the future.

NICOLAS VILANT.

This account of Fergusson's expulsion from the university was written by Dr Hill, Professor Vilant being unable from sickness to do more than attest it with his name.

(To be Continued.)

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REVIEW OF NEW BOOKS.

An Account of Travels into the Interior of Southern Africa, in the Years 1797 and 1798: including curſory Obſervations on the Geology and Geography of the Southern Part of that Continent; the natural Hiſtory of ſuch Objects as occurred in the animal, vegetable, and mineral Kingdoms; and Sketches of the phyſical and moral Characters of the various Tribes of Inhabitants ſurrounding the Settlement of the Cape of Good Hope, &c. By John Barrow, late Secretary to the Earl of M'Cartney, and Auditor-General of the Public Accounts at the Cape of Good Hope. 4to. 1l. 10s. Boards. Cadell, jun. and Davies.

WE may affirm, that in different undertakings different qualities are neceſſary. The hardihood, the patience, and the perſeverance, which bore a man through barbarous nations to the banks of the Niger, might be ſuperfluous to the wealthy traveller who viſits a civilized country, in order to inſpect its arts and manufactures, and to obſerve the genius, temper, habits, and manners of its inhabitants;—the natural philoſopher who aſcends *Æ*tna, and the claſſical enthuſiaſt who viſits the Troad, have diſtinct objects to accompliſh by appropriate acquirements;—and the ſcience, which inſtructed the aſtronomer on Mount Schehallian to verify the principle of gravitation, would be unprofitable to him who traces the veſtiges of departed magnificence, or ponders over the monuments of antient art.

The author of the travels recorded in the volume before us may, or may not, be gifted with many more accompliſhments than thoſe to which his work gives teſtimony: but certainly the qualities neceſſary for an undertaking like that in which he engaged, and for the ſubſequent deſcription and narration of it, reſult, he ſeems in a very eminent manner to poſſeſs. He has not only informed us what are the general appearances and nature of the country, what plants are produced, and what are the diſpoſitions and cuſtoms of the inhabitants, but he has viewed the regions under his inſpection with the eye of a politician, and has inquired what new productions in the animal and vegetable kingdoms may be advantageouſly introduced; he has pointed out the ſpots, proper for watering places; and the bays of good anchorage; and with the feelings and views of enlightened humanity, he has reprobated the cruel treatment of the Hottentots, and ſuggeſted means for bettering their condition.

Timber of all kinds for building is very rare at the Cape, yet little pains have been taken to cultivate it near the town. In parts of the country not far diſtant, plantations of oak trees, of the white poplar, and of the ſtone pine, are to be found, and thrive rapidly: but their timber is generally unſound. The article of fuel is ſo ſcarce at Cape Town, that a ſmall cart load compoſed of the branches of the ſilver tree, of the larger heaths, &c. ſells from 20 to 28s. A ſlave is uſually kept in families for the ſole purpoſe of collecting fire-wood; and the annual expence in a moderate family, for faggots for the kitchen fire, (the only one in the houſe) is nearly 50l. To remedy this evil Lord M'Cartney ordered a ſearch to be made for foſſil coal; and the operation of boring was begun on a tongue of land projecting from the Table Mountain: but it was ſoon diſcontinued, on the diſcovery of actual coal *coming out to day*, along the banks of a deep rivulet flowing out of the Tygerberg Hill. The coal already found is at the depth of two feet: but, when Mr Barrow wrote his account, the borer had been put down in ſeveral places in hopes of meeting with the main bed, without ſucceſs.

The Botaniſt may find an ample field of inveſtigation in the Cape diſtrict. Its vegetable productions, Mr Barrow ſays, (and he is good authority, ſince he appears to be himſelf a cultivator of natural hiſtory) are more numerous, varied, and elegant, than on any other ſpot of equal extent in the whole world; and of the fruiteſcent or ſhrubby plants, there is likewiſe great abundance. To zoologiſts, the animals of the Cape afford a more contracted ſcope.

Inſects of every deſcription abound dur-

during the ſummer months: muſquitoes are leſs troubleſome than in moſt warm climates: but a ſmall ſand fly, almoſt inviſible, is the cauſe of great torment.—Almoſt all the ſnakes of the country are venomous.—The fatal diſeaſe, which prevails among the natives, Mr C. attributes to their habits of life, rather than to the climate; in ſupport of which opinion, he remarks that the Engliſh troops enjoy uncommonly good health in this colony.

Of the inhabitants of the Cape, and of their ſituation under the Engliſh Government, Mr Barrow thus writes:

"The education of youth has hitherto been very much neglected. The government never hit upon any ſucceſsful plan for the eſtabliſhment of public ſchools; and the individual had no other ambition but that of qualifying his ſons, by writing and accounts, to become ſervants of the Company. This body of merchants had a number of perſons in their employ who were very ill paid. Their ſalaries indeed were inſufficient to afford them a bare ſubſiſtence; but it tacitly allowed them to negociate for themſelves. The conſequence of ſuch a conduct was, that each became a kind of petty dealer. Each had his little private ſhop in ſome corner of his houſe. The moſt paltry articles were in the liſt of their commodities for ſale; and thoſe who ranked high in the government, and aſſumed a ſtring of full-ſounding epithets to their names, felt no ſort of indignity in retailing the produce of their gardens; not indeed avowedly, but through the medium of their ſlaves. In fact, the minds of every claſs, the governor, the clergy, the fiſcal, and the ſecretary of the court of juſtice excepted, were wholly bent on trade. *Koopman*, or merchant, was a title that conferred rank at the Cape, to which the military even aſpired. On this ſubject the ideas of the Dutch differ widely from thoſe of the Chineſe, who have degraded the merchant into the very loweſt order of their ſociety.

"It has been the remark of moſt travellers that the ladies of the Cape are pretty, lively, and good-humoured; poſſeſſing little of that phlegmatic temper which is a principal trait in the national character of the Dutch. The difference in the manners and appearance of the young men and the young women, in the ſame family, is inconceivably great. The former are clumſy in their ſhape, aukward in their carriage, and of an unſociable diſpoſition; whilſt the latter are generally of a ſmall delicate form, below the middle ſize, of eaſy and unaffected manners, well dreſſed, and fond of ſocial intercourſe, an indulgence in which they are ſeldom reſtrained by their parents, and which they as ſeldom turn to abuſe. They are here indeed leſs dependant on, and leſs ſubject to, the caprice of parents than elſewhere. Primogeniture entitles to no advantages; but all the children, male and female, ſhare alike in the family property. No parent can diſinherit a child without aſſigning, on proof, one at leaſt of the fourteen reaſons enumerated in the Juſtinian Code. By the law of the colony, a community of all property, both real and perſonal, is ſuppoſed to take place on the marriage of two perſons, unleſs the contrary ſhould be particularly provided againſt by ſolemn contract made before marriage. Where no ſuch contract exiſts, the children, on the death of either parent, are entitled to that half of the joint property which was ſuppoſed to belong to the deceaſed, and which cannot be withheld on application after they are come of age.

"It is but juſtice to the young females of the Cape to remark, that many of them have profited much more than could be expected from the limited means of education that the place affords. In the better families, moſt of them are taught muſic, and ſome have acquired a tolerable degree of execution. Many underſtand the French language, and ſome have made great proficiency in the Engliſh. They are expert at the needle, at all kinds of lace, knotting, and tambour work, and in general make up their own dreſſes, following the prevailing faſhions of England, brought from time to time by the female paſſengers bound to India, from whom they may be ſaid to

"Catch the manners living as they riſe.',

"Neither are the other ſex, while boys, deficient in vivacity or talent; but for want of the means of a proper education, to open their minds and excite in them a deſire of knowledge, they ſoon degenerate into the common routine of eating, ſmoaking, and ſleeping

ing. Few of the male inhabitants aſſociate with the Engliſh, except ſuch as hold employments under the government. This backwardneſs may be owing in part to the different habits of the two nations, and partly, perhaps, to the remembrance that a vanquiſhed people muſt always feel in mixing with their conquerors. No real cauſe, however, of complaint or diſſaffection could poſſibly be alleged againſt the Engliſh government at the Cape. No new taxes have been impoſed ſince the conqueſt; but, on the contrary, ſome of the old ones have been diminiſhed, and others modified. The demand and value of every production of the colony have very conſiderably encreaſed, while the articles of import have fallen in their prices. More than 200,000 rix-dollars of arrears in rent of land have been remitted to the inhabitants by the Britiſh government, as well as 180,000 rix-dollars of dubious debts. They have preſerved their laws and their religion, both of which continue to be adminiſtered by their own people. They enjoy as great a ſhare of rational liberty as men, bound to each other, and to the whole, by the ties that a ſtate of ſociety neceſſarily impoſes, could poſſibly expect, and much greater than under their former government. Property has been ſecure in every inſtance, and has been raiſed to double its former value: and none has the loſs of life of any friend or relation to lament at the time of, or ſince, the capture. Their paper currency, fabricated by the government in order to get over a temporary diſtreſs, but which it had never been able to take out of circulation, bore a depreciation of 40 *per cent.* and a ſilver dollar was ſcarcely to be ſeen. The former is now at par with ſpecie, and not leſs than two millions of the latter have been ſent from England and thrown into circulation. Every perſon enjoys his ſhare of the general proſperity. The proprietor of houſes in town has more than doubled his rent; and the farmer in the country, where formerly he received a rix-dollar for each of his ſheep, now receives three. Four years of increaſing proſperity, of uninterrupted peace and domeſtic tranquillity, have been the happy lot of the inhabitants of the Cape of Good Hope."

We are next preſented with a deſcription of the women of the African peaſantry; who, in liſtleſs inactivity, "ſleep along the blank of life," exciting no love, interchanging no affections, harbouring no ſympathies, but alike inſenſible to the ſedate pleaſures of ſocial intercourſe, and to the tumultuous exhilarations of public feſtivals.—Yet, rude and ignorant as the peaſantry are, the virtues of hoſpitality are cultivated by them to exceſs; and all travellers are equally welcome to the beſt food and accommodation which their means can ſupply.

Mr B.'s account of the Hottentots is too intereſting, and too creditable to the writer, to be wholly omitted:

"Twenty years ago, if we may credit the travellers of that day, the country beyond Cantoos river, which was then the eaſtern limit of the colony, abounded with kraals or villages of Hottentots, out of which the inhabitants came to meet them by hundreds in a groupe. Some of theſe villages might ſtill have been expected to remain in this remote and not very populous part of the colony. Not one, however was to be found. There is not in the whole extenſive diſtrict of Graaf Reynet a ſingle horde of independent Hottentots; and perhaps not a ſcore of individuals who are not actually in the ſervice of the Dutch. Theſe weak people, the moſt helpleſs, and in their preſent condition perhaps the moſt wretched, of the human race, duped out of their poſſeſſions, their country, and finally out of their liberty, have entailed upon their miſerable offſpring a ſtate of exiſtence to which that of ſlavery might bear the compariſon of happineſs. It is a condition, however, not likely to continue to a very remote poſterity. The name of Hottentot will be forgotten, or remembered only as that of a deceaſed perſon of little note. Their numbers of late years have rapidly declined. It has generally been obſerved that wherever Europeans colonized, the leſs civilized natives have always dwindled away, and at length totally diſappeared. Various cauſes have contributed to the depopulation of the Hottentots. The impolitic cuſtom of hording together in families, and of not marrying out of their own kraals, has no doubt tended to enervate this race of men, and reduced them to their preſent degenerated condition, which is

the

that of a languid, liftleſs, phlegmatic people, in whom the prolific powers of nature ſeem to be almoſt exhauſted. To this may be added their extreme poverty, ſcantineſs of food, and continual dejection of mind, ariſing from the cruel treatment they receive from an inhuman and unfeeling peaſantry, who having diſcovered themſelves to be removed to too great a diſtance from the ſeat of their former government to be awed by its authority, have exerciſed, in the moſt wanton and barbarous manner, an abſolute power over theſe poor wretches reduced to the neceſſity of depending upon them for a morſel of bread. There is ſcarcely an inſtance of cruelty ſaid to have been committed againſt the ſlaves in the Weſt India iſlands, that could not find a parallel from the Dutch farmers of the remote parts of the colony towards the Hottentots in their ſervice. Beating and cutting them with thongs of the hide of the ſea-cow or rhinoceros, is a gentle puniſhment, though theſe ſort of whips which they call *ſhambos* are moſt horrid inſtruments, tough, pliant, and heavy almoſt as lead. Firing ſmall ſhot into the legs and thighs of a Hottentot is a puniſhment not unknown to ſome of the monſters who inhabit the neighbourhood of Cantoos river. Inſtant death is not unfrequently the conſequence of puniſhing theſe poor wretches in a moment of rage. This is of little conſequence to the farmer; for though they are to all intents and purpoſes his ſlaves, yet they are not tranſferable property. It is this circumſtance which, in his mind, makes their lives leſs valuable and their treatment more inhuman.

"In offences of too ſmall moment to ſtir up the phlegm of a Dutch peaſant, the coolneſs and tranquility diſplayed at the puniſhment of his ſlave or Hottentot is highly ridiculous, and at the ſame time indicative of a ſavage diſpoſition to unfeeling cruelty lurking in his heart. He flogs them, not by any given number of laſhes, but by time; and as they have no clocks nor ſubſtitutes for them capable of marking the ſmaller diviſions of time, he has invented an excuſe for the indulgence of one of his moſt favourite ſenſualities, by flogging them till he has ſmoked as many pipes of tobacco as he may judge the magnitude of the crime to deſerve. The government of Malacca, according to the manuſcript journal of an intelligent officer in the expedition againſt that ſettlement, has adopted the ſame cuſtom of *flogging by pipes*; and the fiſcal or chief magiſtrate, or ſome of his deputies, are the ſmokers on ſuch occaſions."

The reſt of the account is particular and curious, but want of room obliges us to omit many paſſages—Mr B. ſuggeſts that the Hottentot cuſtom of greaſing the body is founded on a rational principle; viz. that of preventing the ſkin from being ſhrivelled and parched by the ſcorching rays of the ſun.

That the facts related in the preſent volume are not faithfully ſtated, there is very ſlender reaſon for ſuppoſing: while in favour of the author's good faith and accuracy, many arguments may be urged, drawn from previouſly exiſting accounts, from probability and analogy, and from internal evidences. With one or two exceptions, Mr Barrow manifeſts little diſpoſition to credulity, or to haſtineſs of judgment. His ſtyle is, on the whole, perſpicuous and elegant; neither careleſs nor elaborate; and if in parts it may be cenſured, it is only when the author wiſhes to excite ſomething more than ſedate and temperate approbation; when he anxiouſly aims at excellencies either beyond his reach, or incompatible with the nature of his performance. A work much larger, to be offended with a few ſpots would diſplay malignity of criticiſm; and thoſe animadverſions are to be ſet aſide, that would divert our regards from the general excellencies of a work which, while it entertains its readers, will make them wiſer, without cauſing them to be more depraved; and which is calculated to increaſe the knowledge of human nature, to enlighten the views of policy, and to excite intereſt for the concerns of ſuffering humanity.

The Hiſtory of the Campaigns of 1796 and 1797, in Germany and Italy; and of the Campaigns of 1799 in Germany, Switzerland, Italy and Holland.

(*Continued from p.* 635.)

VARIOUS particulars, highly to the honour of the General who has ſince fallen ſo glorioufly on the plains of

Egypt, and which renew the lamentation and regret ſo univerſally produced by this cataſtrophe, are related in this work: but, in the choice of the Helder for a point of landing, the uncertainty of the elements ſeems not to have been duly conſidered; and the deceitful hope of a general riſing in our favour muſt have been entertained.

'Political and local circumſtances were of much more conſequence than the ſentiments and opinions of Dutch or French. The three weeks which had elapſed from the period when it became evident that the armament was intended againſt North Holland, had enabled the Republicans to avail themſelves of the means of defence which it affords. They had it in their power to chuſe, in a manner, from time, to convert every dike into an entrenchment —every road into a defile, and every field (if the expreſſion may be uſed) into a kind of fortreſs. The extreme *facility* of conveyance by water had *facilitated* to them the means of forming, wherever they choſe, magazines of military ſtores and of proviſions; and it likewiſe rendered the movements of their troops at once more expeditious and leſs fatiguing —Each day would diminiſh the whole diſadvantage under which the Republicans laboured, that of inferiority in number. The whole of the troops either reſerve, or new battalions raiſed by conſcription in the United Provinces, in the Netherlands, or in the country between the Meuſe and the Rhine, were upon the march towards North Holland; the Directory not having any longer reaſon to apprehend any invaſion of the eaſtern ſide of France, ſince the Archduke Charles had quitted Switzerland with the greateſt paſt of his army.

The views of both parties in the action of the 19th of September, the particulars of that day, the precipitate and diſorderly march of the Ruſſians, the repulſe which they experienced, the diſcouragement which they felt in conſequence of this check, their obſtinate refuſal to form themſelves when Britiſh aſſiſtance arreſted the career of their purſuers, and the effect which theſe circumſtances produced on the event of the day, are ſtated by the preſent author with great method and perſpecuity.

In the battle of the 2d of October, the Ruſſians appear to have been as much in one extreme, as they had before been in the other; and but for their inactivity, the main objects of this laſt day would, according to our author, have been in a great degree attained. Theſe charges againſt our co-operators might not only create ſurprize, but excite ſuſpicions reſpecting their juſtice, if the cauſes which account for the conduct imputed to them were not laid down in a note of great intereſt and curioſity; we ſhall preſent it to our readers:

'It may have been remarked that the conduct of the Ruſſians in this affair was directly oppoſite to what it had been in that of the 19th, in the one advancing too far and too rapidly, in the other not far enough and too ſlowly; in both however ill conforming to the ſuperior orders they had received.

'This inequality of conduct cannot be attributed to an inequality of bravery in the troops of that nation, for it is really as uniform as it is generally acknowledged to be. But what they did on the one hand in Holland under General Eſſen, and in Switzerland under General Korakow, and on the other in Italy under Marſhal Suworrow, has proved, that with them more than any other troops, good or bad ſucceſs depends on the Generals who command them; that they are capable of performing prodigies, under an able leader, and one who knows their particular qualities; and that when they have not this advantage, they are liable to experience greater diſaſters than the troops of any other nation would have experienced in ſimilar ſituations.

'This is eaſily underſtood by any one who knows that the principle of the bravery of the Ruſſians, is a blind obedience to their officers and an abſolute contempt of danger; that by means of theſe two great impulſes, the Ruſſian infantry has become equal if not ſuperior to the beſt which exiſts, but that in it alone conſiſt all the ſtrength and merit of the Ruſſian army; that their cavalry, their artillery, and particularly their ſtaff and corps of engineers are very inferior; and that the greater part of the ſubaltern officers are incapable of any thing beyond obedience. From this it reſults that the General alone ought to ſupply the inequality in the different branches of the army,

army, and that if he is deſtitute of talent, if he cannot himſelf, from local circumſtances, direct the different corps, if he has been killed or made priſoner, this misfortune cannot as in moſt other countries of Europe, be repaired by a ſtaff accuſtomed to take a part in all the details of command, and by the tried intelligence of ſubaltern officers, and in ſome degree of the ſoldier himſelf.

'Theſe defects in the compoſition of the Ruſſian armies have been acknowledged by Marſhal Suworrow, and certainly no perſon knew better than he did the particular genius of his nation, and the means of turning it to the beſt advantage. Thoſe who have obſerved his conduct, may have remarked that he conſtantly endeavoured to avail himſelf of the ſtrong part of the Ruſſian army, and to avoid expoſing its weak part. Thus, as has been ſeen in the preceeding volume in the battles of the Trebbia, he placed his infantry in ſuch a manner that it had free ſcope for its bravery and its favourite way of fighting. It was thus at Novi, putting the Auſtrians upon the two wings where fighting was to be attended with manœuvring, which perhaps the Ruſſians would have ill executed, he placed the latter in the centre, where the attack was to be ſimply in front, but where it was of ſuch a nature, that however good the Auſtrian army is, it perhaps would not have been equal to it. It was thus that in the valley of Mutten, in place of employing in his defence, *demonſtrations*, *tirailleurs*, and detached parties, as the French did in their attack, Suworrow made his troops fight in a body and with the bayonet, and thus extricated himſelf from one of the worſt ſituations in which any General ever found himſelf.'

The victory of the 2d of October reſembled thoſe of Pyrrhus; the ſucceſs had been too limited, and the loſs too great, to ſecure the purpoſes which the Royal commander had hoped to have gained by it. One attempt more it was his intention to have made: but he was prevented by the obſtinacy of the Ruſſians, which converted an affair of poſts into a general engagement, terminating not very favourably. Freſh reinforcements had added to the power of the enemy, ſo that nothing could be hoped from another action; and it became neceſſary to give attention to thoſe humiliating but unavoidable ſteps which were afterward adopted. The grounds of theſe meaſures will be beſt learned from a peruſal of the repreſentations ſubmitted to the Commander in Chief by the Lieutenant Generals, which ſtated as follows:

"That the five great actions which the army had fought ſince its diſembarkation, had occaſioned a diminution of its numbers, in killed, wounded, taken, or ſick, to the amount of 9 or 10,000 men; and that *that* loſs could not be quickly repaired, while the enemy, although having experienced a greater one, were become and would be daily more and more numerous. That the advanced period of the ſeaſon, and the unheard of ſucceſſion of ſtorms and rains which had taken place for the three preceeding weeks, had rendered the roads impracticable, and, had worn out the ſoldiers with fatigue, obliged as they were to be continually on the alert in bad and too extended cantonments. That the ſame adverſe ſeaſon had for more than a fortnight impeded the navigation of the Zuyder Zee, and that ſince the 10th of September no veſſel had been able to cooperate with them on the coaſt which flanked their right. That notwithſtanding the advantage of canals, it had never been poſſible to give above two days bread, and ſeldom ſo much to the ſoldiers in advance. That this mode of conveyance exiſted no longer, now that they were beyond Alkmaar, the enemy having carried off all the boats, and thoſe of which they had hitherto made uſe not being able to enter into the canals, which are much narrower than on the other ſide of Alkmaar: and that if the army continued to advance, there was no probability that they would be able to procure a ſufficient number of carriages to bring up the ſupplies. That the poſition which they occupied offered no natural advantage, and was not ſuſceptible of improvement by art, it being no other than a line of open cantonments, in which the troops having no obſtacle or point of ſupport to oppoſe to the enemy, were obliged to be conſtantly on the alert; and that a great part of them had been for four days under arms among the Sandhills, expoſed to continual rain. That ſuppoſing

poſing they ſucceeded in forcing the poſition of Beverwick, they could not continue in it, as they poſſeſſed no certain means of conveyance for the proviſions, while they would have in front the French army become more formidable, and the greateſt part of the Batavian troops on the left flank and on the rear. That the two great baſes on which the plan of this expedition had reſted, were, 1ſt, the expectation of a general inſurrection of the Dutch people as ſoon as they ſhould ſee a conſiderable corps ready to ſupport them; and the 2d, that the French, vigorouſly attacked upon the moſt vulnerable parts of their frontiers, could not, or would not think of defending points more diſtant and leſs important. The firſt of theſe expectations had entirely failed, no inſurrection having taken place in the country which was the theatre of operations, nor in thoſe parts in ſight of which the Engliſh navy had appeared, nor in the more diſtant provinces which the French had left for a long time deſtitute of troops. The ſecond had been no better realiſed; the inactivity of the Imperial army in Switzerland and in Germany, having permitted the French to devote to the defence of Holland forces ſo conſiderable, that there could be no reaſonable hope of being able to overcome, or even in the end to withſtand them."

We do not heſitate to conclude by recommending this Work to the public; to thoſe who ſeek inſtruction rather than amuſement; though much of the latter is alſo to be found in its pages. We ſuppoſe that it was principally deſigned to meet the eyes of profeſſional men: but the politician muſt not diſregard it, ſince it uniformly connects the feats of war with the aims and views of the contending powers; a part of his deſign to which the writer has paid great attention, and in which his merits are very conſiderable. M. R.

The Natural Hiſtory of Volcanoes: including Submarine Volcanoes and other analogous Phenomena. By the Abbé Ordinaire, formerly Canon of St Amable, at *Riom in Auvergne*. Tranſlated from the original French Manuſcript, by R. C. Dallas, Eſq. 8vo. 7s. Cadell and Davies.

WE have many partial enquiries and obſervations on volcanoes, but hitherto no Naturaliſt has undertaken to treat the ſubject of this grand phenomenon completely, in all its parts. That delightful branch of ſcience, natural hiſtory, was in want of ſuch a work, and the Author, who has now given it to us, very juſtly expreſſes his ſurpriſe that the taſk has remained ſo long neglected; for, as he obſerves in his preface, "beſides that there is not a grander or more aſtoniſhing ſight in the world than a volcano during an eruption, there is, perhaps, no branch of natural hiſtory of which the ſtudy is more attractive." Truths of which he who reads this intereſting performance cannot fail to be convinced.

It is really extraordinary, that the Abbé Ordinaire has been able in ſo ſmall a compaſs to diſplay, in the moſt ſatisfactory manner, the cauſes and effects of this prodigy, to explain all that is analogous to it, and to adduce, in ſupport of his arguments, a multitude of curious facts, taken from acknowledged authorities. It is the production of a reflecting, methodical, and well-informed mind: and we are not ſurpriſed to find that Sir William Hamilton did not think there was any danger of diſcrediting his long-eſtabliſhed literary reputation, and particularly in this part of natural hiſtory, by accepting the dedication of his work. Sir William's knowledge of the ſubject naturally pointed him out as the proper patron for it, and enabled him, above others, to eſtimate the value of the offering.

Another very great recommendation of the work is its preciſion and perſpicuity. As the ſubject is of a nature to create a general intereſt, it is treated in a manner adapted to all readers: *indocti diſcant, et ament meminiſſe periti*, a ſaying ſo often abuſed, is truly applicable to it: the reader who is but little acquainted with this ſubject may inform himſelf fully, in an agreeable manner; and he who is maſter of it will meet with reflections and enquiries on which he will be gratified to dwell.

It is eaſier to appreciate Treatiſes of this kind than to analyſe them. Finding, therefore, an admirable ſummary in the Author's Preface, we have taken the liberty to extract it, in order to give our readers an idea of the importance and object of the work.

"The

"The mind delights to inveſtigate the original cauſes by which ſuch mighty fires were kindled in the cold and tranquil boſoms of the loftieſt mountains; the inexhauſtible means by which they keep themſelves alive for ſo long a ſeries of ages; the incitements of their paroxiſms; the ſource of their never-failing emiſſions of lava, and the power that can raiſe that lava bodily from the bottom of the abyſs where it is melted. We are uncertain in the hiſtory of their revolutions; we wiſh to know how volcanoes become extinguiſhed; how ſometimes they only ſlumber; and in what caſe their revival may be apprehended.

"Theſe queſtions, which involve many others, are by no means peculiar to volcanoes on land; moſt of them equally relate to *ſubmarine volcanoes*: indeed, the inveſtigation of the latter is attended with diſcuſſions ſtill ſtimulating to curioſity. The exiſtence of a mountain retaining its fires, although abſolutely buried in the ſea, and opening and ſhutting from time to time in that critical ſituation, is a phenomenon ſo marvellous, that to believe it we muſt have it authenticated by a regular hiſtory of its eruptions. When the fact is eſtabliſhed, we are led to require a reaſon for the ſingular contraſt of poſition between this volcano, which is ſunk below the level of the ocean, and a volcano on land which always occupies lofty ſummits, and generally the loftieſt on the earth. We wiſh to know how a burning gulf can remain open in the boſom of the ocean for months without being inundated; and to learn the manner in which, amidſt fightful conflicts, this opened abyſs at length cloſes."

The learned and ingenious Author has illuſtrated all theſe points, and the reader may imagine how many intereſting ſcenes are involved in them. The work is divided into forty chapters, ſeveral of which diſplay a profound erudition: ſuch is that, in which the Abbé, enquiring whether an extinguiſhed volcano can rekindle, proves it by the hiſtory of Veſuvius for more than three thouſand years; ſuch is that in which he eſtabliſhes the exiſtence of the maritime volcano of *Santorin* (an iſland in the Archipelago to the north of Candia), by an account of nine eruptions that have taken place there in the courſe of one-and-twenty centuries.

The laſt of theſe eruptions being the moſt remarkable, and attended with many curious circumſtances, we give the narrative as a ſpecimen of the nature of the ſubjects diſcuſſed in this volume.

"The eruption of 1767 began in the month of June. The earth, after being violently ſhaken for ſome days by the action of fire, raiſed the ſea in ſuch a manner as to occaſion a dread of its ſwallowing up all the iſlands thereabouts. A thick black ſmoke darkened the air, and infected it with ſo ſtrong a ſtench of ſulphur that many people and animals were ſuffocated by it. Black aſhes reſembling gunpowder fell all around. Torrents of flame, iſſuing from the ſea, and waving on it to the height of ſeveral feet, lighted, at intervals, this horrible ſcene. The frightful mixture of different ſounds produced by all the elements in fury, froze every heart with a dread of the horrors that every inſtant might be the reſult of their conflict.

"At length after a labour of ten or twelve days, nature paſued, and the effect of her agitation was diſcovered in a new iſland, which had riſen near the little *Kameni* (which had itſelf made a ſimilar appearance after a former eruption). No time was loſt in going to examine it. Many parts of it were ſtill burning. It was a ſhapeleſs maſs of baked ſubſtance amalgamated by a lava, which appeared to the eye like the crumb of fine bread. But the very next day the engineers were compelled to relinquiſh this haſty curioſity. They felt the new ſoil moving: it roſe in ſome places and ſunk in others, when they betook themſelves to flight. The earth, ſea, and ſky, ſoon reſumed their formidable appearance. The ſymptoms appeared even to ſpread wider and to threaten worſe. The boiling ſea ſeveral times changed colour: flames following one another without intermiſſion iſſued as from a vaſt furnace, but accompanied with aſhes and pumice. The frightful noiſe of ſubterranean thunders was heard. It ſeemed as if enormous rocks darting from the bottom of the abyſs beat againſt the vaults above it, and were alternately repelled and thrown up again

gain, the repetition of their blows was diſtinctly heard. Some of them making or finding a paſſage, were ſeen flying up red hot in the air, and again falling into the ſea, from whence they had been juſt ejected. Maſſes were produced, held together for ſome days, and then diſappeared. In this general diſorder, large portions of the little *Kameneoi* were ſwallowed up. Mean while the labour of the Volcano took a larger ſurface, its ejections became prodigiouſly abundant, and a new iſland was ſeen forming. By ſucceſſive additions, continued for near four months, it made a junction with that produced in June. It was named *the black Iſland*, from the colour of the ſoil. It is nearly twice as large as the little *Kameneoi*, and is ſeparated from it by a very narrow ſtrait. The volcano continued creating alarm till the end of May in the following year, frequently ſhaking the earth and ſea, and cauſing frightful noiſes. It even opened again, but only for a moment, on the 15th of April, and threw out a multitude of large burning rocks, which fell at the diſtance of two miles."

The names and ſituations of all the burning volcanoes on the face of the globe. The obſervations on the Giant's Cauſeway, the Mud Volcanoes of Maccalouba, Kercha, and Taman, the Hydropyric Volcanoes of England, and many other ſubjects, are no leſs curious and entertaining.

Where the Abbe differs in opinion from other writers, he diſcuſſes the queſtions in diſpute with that moderation and politeneſs which diſtinguiſh the real philoſopher, and always conciliates the reader. We are informed, from good authority, that he is at preſent employed in completing two more works, one on the *Sea*, and the other on *Meteors*. From the manner in which he has treated the *Natural Hiſtory of Volcanoes*, we ſhall be anxious for their appearance; and we truſt, he will receive from Britiſh patronage and encouragement what his talents and learning deſerve. It is pleaſing to ſee any unfortunate man, driven from his country for the ſake of his religion, devoting his time and abilities to the Public, or rather to mankind: but, on the other hand, when we reflect that the difficulties of his preſent ſituation may exclude many of the means and opportunities neceſſary for completing his labour ſpeedily, regret cannot but mingle with our pleaſure.

Of the tranſlation we ſhall only obſerve, that it is from the pen of the Author of "Perceval," who has given ſeveral proofs of his complete knowledge of the French language in former tranſlations. M.

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POETRY

For the Scots Magazine.

Tune—Mary's Dream.

FROM ſome ſad ſhade in yonder grove,
I hear the tender notes of woe,
'Tis from the moaning turtle dove,
Such tender notes of ſorrow flow.

Say, gentle bird, and is ſhe dead,
The partner of thy happy neſt,
That thus you droop your little head,
And mourn with me, alike unbleſt.

Say, did the ruthleſs kite deſcend,
And truſs thy lovely brooding mate,
While all unable to defend,
You view'd her ſad unhappy fate.

Thy woes awaken in my heart,
The throbing pang that ne'er ſhall ceaſe,
Ah, why, Louiſa, did we part,
No more I'll find my ruin'd peace.

I feel the icy chill of death,
Cold ſtealing on my vital part,
Ah, ſoon the graſſy turf beneath,
Shall reſt this weary aching heart.

Once more the turtle's moan was heard,
The knell of his departing ſoul,
Faint ſcreaming felt the flottering bird,
No other bell was heard to toll.

Yard-place, Sept. 21. 1801. J. T.

For the Scots Magazine.

ON THE ART OF PAINTING,

By a Lady on ſeeing ſome Landſcapes.

WHILE nature's beauties charm the ſight,
I view theſe landſcapes with delight;
In verdure gay theſe rural ſcenes,
Theſe ſhady woods and mofſy plains,
With cryſtal floods and rocks commixed,
Genius diſplay with taſte refined:
No more ſhall mind in town to dwell,
I ſigh for ſome unpolluted cell;
While thus I languiſh for the ſhade,
Imagination would perſuade,
That I may wander through this wood,
And pray beſide that cryſtal flood;
Or on the mofſy bank recline,
May meditate with peace of mind,
To make fidelity conſtant,
Allure the mufe to my retreat,
Thus to indulge while fancy cries,
Rous'd by the crowd's tumultuous cries,
Forſook the ſweet delights of ſtudy,
Where ſhall I find theſe ſhady woods,
Theſe rugged rocks and cryſtal floods,
Which have ſo pleaſed and entertain'd,
Prove but a piece of canvas ſtain'd.

Still on theſe views I fix my eyes,
Admiring valleys, mountains, ſkies,
Creation's works, by light and ſhade,
Or ſoftning artfully diſplay'd,
How great that genius, how refin'd,
Who paints the feelings of the mind;
The higheſt praiſe to him we give,
Whoſe powers make canvaſs ſeem to live.
When thoſe we dearly love ſhall die,
When melancholy heaves a ſigh,
Their likeneſs by this noble art,
Shall charm the eye, and ſoothe the heart.

THE MISLETOE.

*A Chriſtmas Tale.**

A FARMER's wife, both young and gay,
And freſh as op'ning buds of May;
Had taken to herſelf a ſpouſe,
And plighted many ſolemn vows,
That ſhe a faithful mate would prove,
In meekneſs, duty, and in love!
That ſhe, deſpiſing joy and wealth,
Would be, in ſickneſs, and in health,
His only comfort and his friend—
But, mark the ſequel—and attend.

This farmer, as the tale is told—
Was ſomewhat crotſ, and ſomewhat old!
His was the wint'ry hour of life,
While ſummer ſmiled before his wife:
A contraſt, rather form'd to cloy
The zeſt of matrimonial joy!

'Twas Chriſtmas time, the peaſant throng
Aſſembled gay with dance and ſong:
The farmer's kitchen long had been
Of annual ſports the buſy ſcene;
The wood-fire blaz'd, the chimney wide
Prieſted feaſts, on either ſide;
Long rows of wooden trenchers, clean,
Bedeck'd with holly-boughs, were ſeen;
The ſhining tankard's foamy ale
Gave ſpirits to the goblin tale,
And many a roſy cheek—grew pale.

It happened, that ſome ſport to ſhew,
The ceiling held a Miſletoe.
A magic bough, and well deſign'd
To prove the cryeſt maiden, kind.
A magic bough, which Druids old
Its ſacred myſteries enroll'd;
And which, or goſſip Fame's a liar,
Still warms the ſoul with vivid fire;
Soft promiſes a ſhore of bliſs
While bigots ſnatch their idol's kiſs.

This Miſletoe was doom'd to be
The talliſman of deſtiny;
Beneath its ample boughs we're told
Full many a timid ſwain grew bold;
Full many a roguiſh eye aſkance
Beheld it with impatient glance,
And many a ruddy cheek confeſt,
The triumphs of the beating breaſt;

* As a ſpecimen of Mrs Hannah's Lyric Tales.

And many a ruſtic rover ſigh'd
Who aſk'd the kiſs, and was denied.

Firſt Marg'ry ſmil'd, and gave her lover
A kiſs; then thank'd her ſtars, *'twas over!*
Next, Kate, with a reluctant pace,
Was tempted to the myſtic place;
Then Sue, a merry laughing jade
A dimpled yielding bluſh betray'd;
While Joan her chaſtity to ſhew
Wiſh'd "the bold knaves would ſerve *her* ſo."
She'd "teach the rogues ſuch wanton play!"
And well ſhe could, ſhe knew the way.

The farmer, mute with jealous care,
Sat ſullen, in his wicker chair;
Hating the noiſy gameſome hoſt,
Yet fearful to reſign his poſt;
He envied all their ſportive ſtrife,
But moſt he watch'd his blooming wife,
And trembled, leſt her ſteps ſhould go,
Incautious, near the Miſletoe.

Now Hodge, a youth of ruſtic grace
With form athletic; manly face;
On Miſtreſs Homeſpun turn'd his eye,
And breath'd a loud—declaring ſigh!
Old Homeſpun, mark'd his liſt'ning fair
And neſtled in his wicker chair;
Hodge ſwore, ſhe might his heart command,
The pipe was dropp'd from Homeſpun's hand!

Hodge preſt her ſlender waiſt around;
The farmer check'd his draught, and frown'd!
And now beneath the Miſletoe
'Twas Miſtreſs Homeſpun's turn to go;
Old ſurly ſhook his wicker chair,
And ſternly utter'd—"*Let her dare!*"

Hodge to the Farmer's wife declar'd
Such huſbands never ſhould be ſpar'd;
Swore they deſerv'd the worſt diſgrace,
That lights upon the wedded race;—
And vow'd—that night he would not go
Unbleſt, beneath the Miſletoe.

The merry group all recommend
An harmleſs kiſs, the ſtrife to end:
"Why not?" ſays Marg'ry, "who would
"fear,
A dang'rous moment, once a year?"
Sufan obſerv'd, that "ancient folks
Were ſeldom pleas'd with youthful jokes;"
But Kate, who, till that fatal hour,
Had held, o'er Hodge, unrivall'd pow'r,
With curving lip and head aſide
Look'd down and ſmil'd in conſcious pride,
Then, anxious to conceal her care,
She hummm'd—"*what fools ſome women are!*"

Now, Miſtreſs Homeſpun, ſorely vex'd,
By pride and jealous rage perplex'd,
And angry, that her peeviſh ſpouſe
Should doubt her matrimonial vows,
But, moſt of all, reſolved to make
An envious rival's boſom ache;
Commanded Hodge to let her go,
Nor lead her to the Miſletoe:
"Why ſhould you aſk it o'er and o'er?"
Cried ſhe, "*we've been there twice before!*"
'Tis thus, to check a rival's ſway,
That women oft themſelves betray;
While Vanity, alone, purſuing,
They raſhly prove their own undoing.

TO ELIZA

On her Marriage.*

YOU'RE now, Eliza, fix'd for life;
In other words, you're now—a wife;
And let me whiſper in your ear
A wife, though fix'd, has cauſe to fear;
For much ſhe riſks, and much ſhe loſes
If an improper road ſhe chooſes.
Yet think not that I mean to fright you,
My plan, *au contraire*, is to delight you;
To draw the lines where comfort reaches;
Where folly flies; where prudence teaches.
In ſhort, Eliza, to prevent you
From nameleſs ills that may torment you:
And ere bright Hymen's torch burns faintly,
From nuptial glare conduct you gently,
Where (cur'd of wounds from Cupid's quiver)
A milder luſtre beams for ever!

Firſt, then, Eliza, change your carriage,
Courtſhip's a different thing from marriage;
And much I fear (by paſſion blinded)
This change at firſt is ſeldom minded.
The miſs who feaſts on rich romances,
And love-ſick ſonnets, wiſely fancies
That all the end of ardent wooing
Is conſtant billing, conſtant cooing.
The nymph again, whom caution teaches
To doubt the truth of rapt'rous ſpeeches,
She whom experience oft has ſchool'd,
And ſhewn how huſbands may be—rul'd,
Laughs at the whims of fond ſixteen,
And thinks that wedlock ſtamps—a queen.
Now I (though ne'er, alas! contracted)
Conſider both as half diſtracted;
And will predict that endleſs ſtrife
Muſt be the lot of either wife.
Not that I would infer from hence,
That men of feeling, worth, or ſenſe,
Could ever try to wound or pain
A tender breaſt with cold diſdain;
Or e'er deſcend to ſtorm and battle
At fondly-fooliſh female prattle.
Yet if ſweet madam, without reaſon,
Will fret and fume, and mutter treaſon,
Plaguing her plain, unpuffing ſpouſe,
About his former oaths and vows,
And tender ſighs, and ſoft expreſſions,
With various comments and digreſſions,
I will not ſwear that mere connexion
Will guard the huſband's warm affection;
And when affection cools, they ſay,
The huſband's apt to—go aſtray.

* From Poems by H. M'Neil, Eſq.

Maids, prais'd and flatter'd all their lives,
Expect as much when they are wives;
And think when husbands ceafe palav'ring,
That love (fweet fouls!) is furely wav'ring:
Then hey! for pets, and cold diftruft,
Dount's fullen brow, and dreams accurft:—
The game goes on, ma'am's in the dumps,
And jealoufy at laft is trumps.
For thee, fair flower! of foftefl dye,
That caught fo late each vagrant eye,
Still breathing fweets, ftill blooming gay,
Beauteous in winter as in May:
For thee this truth the mufe has penn'd.
The mufe—but more thy anxious friend:
'Woman's bright charms were given to lure us,
They catch, 'tis true; but can't fecure us.'

Sage Solomon, who paints with beauty
A virtuous woman's worth and duty,
Compares her to a fhip of trade,
That brings from far her daily bread *.
This may be true; but as for me,
I'll draw a plainer fimile,
And call a virtuous wife a gem,
Which for its worth we ne'er contemn,
Though foon its water, fize, and hue,
Grow quite familiar to the view.
What then enfues? Why, faith, I'll tell you;
We think of nothing but—the value.
Yet take this gem and lay it by
From the poffeffor's careleis eye,
Conceal its luftre, dazzling bright,
From beaming daily on his fight,
I'll take you any bet at pleafure,
Whene'er he views this tempting treafure,
With eager blifs and fparkling eyes
He'll mark each new-born charm arife,
And with the joy of firft poffeffion,
Admire and rave, *sans* intermiffion!

If women, therefore, would be wife,
Inftead of murmurs, tears, and fighs,
And fullen moods, and fcolding frays,
When lovie's abfent for fome days,
Let ev'ry female art confpire
To drive him from the parlour fire.
Of all the plagues in wedded life,
To teaze or to torment a wife,
There's none more likely to increafe
The bane of matrimonial peace,
Than the tame husband always by
With prying and fufpicious eye.

Mark then, when **** goes to town,
Smile thou, when other wives would frown;
He only goes (nay, don't be angry)
To take a walk to make him hungry;
To tafte awhile unknown to care,
A change of exercife and air;
Obferve the pert, the bold, the witty—
How diff'rent from his own fweet Betty
Return impatient to his home,
No husband, but a fond bridegroom.

Laftly, Eliza, let me fay
That wives fhould rather yield than fway;
To thwart a husband's fixt opinion
Is not the way to gain dominion,
For kiffes order, tears reprove†,
And teach us rev'rence, fear, and love!—
O! born to foothe and guide the heart
With native foftnefs, void of art!
Thou, whom nor pride nor fafhion fways,
Unchang'd by flatt'ry's giddy praife;
And thou, to whom a trem'lous youth
Firft fpoke the tale of love and truth,
Blending with paffion's fond alarms
The bright'ning beam of virtue's charms—
Ah! lend not now a careleis ear!—
Yet, yet attend to truth fincere!
Thefe lines at leaft with fmiles receive,
The laft, perhaps, thy bard fhall give.

While pleafure fpreads her gawdy train,
To lure the trifling and the vain;
While fafhion kills the tedious day
With fhopping, concert, cards, and play;
While female love and youth's fair charms
Shrink from pure paffion's ardent arms,
And cling to fplendour's fancied blis,
With withering age and wretchednefs,
Be thine, Eliza, more refin'd,
The pleafures of the virtuous mind!
Be thine the tranfports of the heart
Which love and goodnefs ftill impart;
The tender glance, the tranquil fmile,
A husband's forrows to beguile;
The blufh of joy divinely meek,
That paints a mother's glowing cheek;
The balm that friendfhip ftill beftows;
The tear that drops for human woes!
Thefe, thefe, Eliza! light the way,
And cheer when other charms decay;
Conduct through care and worldly gloom,
And whifper joys—beyond the tomb.

* She is like the merchant fhips, fhe bringeth her food from afar. Prov. xxxiv. 14.

† Leurs ordres font des careffes, leurs menaces font des pleurs. Rousseau.

STATE

STATE PAPERS.

COPY *of the* CONVENTION *with the Court of London, signed at St Petersburgh, the 5th (17th) June* 1801.

In the name of the Moſt Holy and Undivided Trinity.

THE mutual deſire of his Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias, and of his Majeſty the King of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, being not only come to an underſtanding between themſelves with reſpect to the differences which have lately interrupted the good underſtanding and friendly relations which ſubſiſted between the two States; but alſo to prevent, by frank and preciſe explanations upon the navigation of their reſpective ſubjects, the renewal of ſimilar altercations and troubles which might be the conſequence of them; and the object of the ſolicitude of their ſaid Majeſties being to ſettle, as ſoon as can be done, an equitable arrangement of thoſe differences, and an invariable determination of their principles upon the rights of neutrality, in their application to their reſpective monarchies, in order to unite more cloſely the ties of friendſhip and good intercourſe, of which they acknowledge the utility and the benefits, have named and choſen for their plenipotentiaries, viz. his Majeſty the Emperor of all the Ruſſias, the Sieur Nicquita, Count de Panen, his councellor, &c., and his Majeſty the King of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, Alleyn, Baron St Helens, privy councillor, &c. who, after having communicated their full powers, and found them in good and due form, have agreed upon the following points and articles:

Art. I. There ſhall be hereafter between his Imperial Majeſty of all the Ruſſias, and his Britannic Majeſty, their ſubjects, the ſtates and countries under their domination, good and unalterable friendſhip and underſtanding, and all the political, commercial, and other relations of common utility between the reſpective ſubjects, ſhall ſubſiſt as formerly, without their being diſturbed or troubled in any manner whatever.

II. His Majeſty the Emperor, and his Britannic Majeſty, declare, that they will take the moſt eſpecial care of the execution of the prohibitions againſt the trade of contraband of their ſubjects with the enemies of each of the high contracting parties.

III. His Imperial Majeſty of all the Ruſſias, and his Britannic Majeſty, having reſolved to place under a ſufficient ſafeguard the freedom of commerce and navigation of their ſubjects, in caſe one them ſhall be at war, while the other ſhall be neuter, have agreed:

1. That the ſhips of the neutral power ſhall navigate freely to the ports, and upon the coaſts of the nations at war.

2. That the effects embarked on board neutral ſhips ſhall be free, with the exception of contraband of war, and of enemy's property; and it is agreed not to comprife in the number of the latter, the merchandiſe of the produce, growth, or manufacture of countries at war, which ſhould have been acquired by the ſubjects of the neutral power, and ſhould be tranſported for their account, which merchandiſe cannot be excepted in any caſe from the freedom granted to the flag of the ſaid power.

3. That in order to avoid all equivocation and miſunderſtanding of what ought to be qualified as contraband of war, his Imperial Majeſty of all the Ruſſias, and his Britannic Majeſty, declare, conformably the 11th article of the treaty of commerce concluded between the two crowns on the 10th (21ſt) February, 1797, that they acknowledge as ſuch only the following objects, viz. cannons, mortars, fire-arms, piſtols, bombs, grenades, balls, bullets, fire-locks, flints, matches, powder, ſaltpetre, ſulphur, helmets, pikes, ſwords, ſword-belts, ſaddles, and bridles, excepting, however, the quantity of the ſaid articles which may be neceſſary for the defence of the ſhip and of thoſe who compoſe the crew; and all other articles whatever, not enumerated here, ſhall not be reputed warlike and naval ammunition, nor be ſubject to confiſcation, and of courſe ſhall paſs freely, without being ſubjected to the ſmalleſt difficulty, unleſs they be conſidered enemy's property in the above ſettled ſenſe. It is alſo agreed, that

that which is ſtipulated in the preſent article ſhall not be to the prejudice of the particular ſtipulations of the one or the other crown with other powers, by which objects of a ſimilar kind ſhould be reſerved, prohibited, or permitted.

4. That in order to determine what characteriſes a blockaded port, that determination is given only to that where there is, by the diſpoſition of the power which attacks it with ſhips ſtationary, or ſufficiently near, an evident danger in entering.

5. That the ſhip of the neutral power ſhall not be ſtopped but upon juſt cauſes and evident facts: that they be tried without delay, and that the proceeding be always uniform, prompt, and legal.

In order the better to enſure the reſpect due to theſe ſtipulations, dictated by the ſincere deſire of conciliating all intereſts, and to give a new proof of their loyalty and love of juſtice, the high contracting parties enter here into the moſt formal engagement to renew the ſevereſt prohibitions to their captains, whether of ſhips of war or merchantmen, to take, keep, or conceal on board their ſhips any of the objects which, in the terms of the preſent convention, may be reputed contraband, and reſpectively to take care of the execution of the orders which they ſhall have publiſhed in their admiralties, and wherever it ſhall be neceſſary.

IV. The two high contracting parties, wiſhing to prevent all ſubject of diſſention in future by limiting the right of ſearch of merchant ſhips, going under convoy, to the caſes in which the belligerent power may experience a real prejudice by the abuſe of the neutral flag, have agreed,

1. That the right of ſearching merchant ſhips belonging to ſubjects of one of the contracting powers, and navigating under convoy of a ſhip of war of the ſaid power, ſhall only be exerciſed by ſhips of war of the belligerent party, and ſhall never extend to the fitters out of privateers, or other veſſels, which do not belong to the Imperial or Royal fleet of their Majeſties, but which their ſubjects ſhall have fitted out for war.

2. That the proprietors of all merchant ſhips belonging to the ſubjects of one of the contracting ſovereigns, which ſhall be deſtined to ſail under convoy of a ſhip of war, ſhall be required, before they receive their ſailing orders, to produce to the commander of the convoy their paſſports and certificates, or ſea-letters, in the form annexed to the preſent treaty.

3. That when ſuch ſhip of war, and every merchant ſhip under convoy, ſhall be met with by a ſhip or ſhips of war of the other contracting party, who ſhall then be in a ſtate of war, in order to avoid all diſorder, they ſhall keep out of cannon ſhot, unleſs the ſituation of the ſea, or the place of meeting, render a nearer approach neceſſary: and the commander of a ſhip of the belligerent power ſhall ſend a ſloop on board the convoy, where they ſhall proceed reciprocally to the verification of the papers and certificates that are to prove on one part, that the ſhip of war is authoriſed to take under its eſcort ſuch or ſuch merchant ſhips of its nation, laden with ſuch a cargo, and for ſuch a port: on the other part, that the ſhip of war of the belligerent party belongs to the Imperial or Royal fleet of their Majeſties.

4. This verification made, there ſhall be no pretence for any ſearch, if the papers are found in due form, and if there exiſts no good motive for ſuſpicion. In the contrary caſe, the captain of the neutral ſhip of war (being duly required thereto by the captain of the ſhip or ſhips of war of the belligerent power) is to bring to and detain his convoy during the time neceſſary for the ſearch of the ſhips which compoſe it, and he ſhall have the faculty of naming and delegating one or more officers to aſſiſt at the ſearch of the ſaid ſhips, which ſhall be done in his preſence on board each merchant ſhip conjointly with one or more officers ſelected by the captain of the ſhip of the belligerent party.

5. If it happen that the captain of the ſhip or ſhips of war of the power at war, having examined the papers found on board, and having interrogated the maſter and crew of the ſhip, ſhall ſee juſt and ſufficient reaſon to detain the merchant ſhip in order to proceed to an ulterior ſearch, he ſhall notify that intention to the captain of the convoy, who ſhall have the power to order an officer to remain on board the ſhip thus detained, and to aſſiſt at the examination of the cauſe of her deten-

tion

tion. The merchant ſhip ſhall be carried immediately to the nearer and moſt convenient port belonging to the belligerent power, and the ulterior ſearch ſhall be carried on with all poſſible diligence.

V. It is alſo agreed, that if any merchant ſhip thus convoyed ſhould be detained without juſt and ſufficient cauſe, the commander of the ſhip or ſhips of war of the belligerent power ſhall not only be bound to make to the owners of the ſhip and of the cargo, a full and perfect compenſation for all the loſſes, expences, damages, and coſts, occaſioned by ſuch a detention, but ſhall further be liable to an ulterior puniſhment for every act of violence or other fault which he may have committed, according as the nature of the caſe may require. On the other hand, no ſhip of war with a convoy ſhall be permitted, under any pretext whatſoever, to reſiſt by force the detention of a merchant ſhip or ſhips by the ſhip or ſhips of war of the belligerent power; an obligation which the commander of a ſhip of war with convoy is not bound to obſerve toward privateers and their fitters out.

VI. The high contracting powers ſhall give preciſe and efficacious orders that the ſentences upon prizes made at ſea ſhall be conformable with the rules of the moſt exact juſtice and equity; that they ſhall be given by judges above ſuſpicion, and who ſhall not be intereſted in the matter. The government of the reſpective ſtates ſhall take care that the ſaid ſentences ſhall be promptly and duly executed, according to the forms preſcribed. In caſe of the unfounded detention, or other contravention of the regulations ſtipulated by the preſent treaty, the owners of ſuch ſhip and cargo ſhall be allowed damages proportioned to the loſs occaſioned by ſuch detention. The rules to obſerve for theſe damages, and for the caſe of unfounded detention; as alſo the principles to follow for the purpoſe of accelerating the proceſs, ſhall be the matter of additional articles, which the contracting parties agree to ſettle between them, and which ſhall have the ſame force and validity as if they were inſerted in the preſent act. For this effect, their Imperial and Britannic Majeſties mutually engage to put their hand to the ſalutary work, which may ſerve to the completion of theſe ſtipulations, and to communicate to each other without delay the views which may be ſuggeſted to them by their equal ſolicitude to prevent the leaſt grounds for diſpute in future.

VII. To obviate all the inconveniences which may ariſe from the bad faith of thoſe who may avail themſelves of the flag of a nation without belonging to it, it is agreed to eſtabliſh for an inviolable rule, that any veſſel whatever, to be conſidered as the property of the country the flag of which it carries, muſt have on board the captain of the ſhip, and one half of the crew of the people of that country, and the papers and the paſſports in due and perfect form; but every veſſel which ſhall not obſerve this rule, and which ſhall infringe the ordinance publiſhed on that head, ſhall loſe all rights to the protection of the contracting powers.

VIII. The principles and meaſures adopted by the preſent act ſhall be alike applicable to all the maritime wars in which one of the two powers may be engaged whilſt the other remains neutral. Theſe ſtipulations ſhall in conſequence be regarded as permanent, and ſhall ſerve for a conſtant rule to the contracting powers in matters of commerce and navigation.

IX. His Majeſty the King of Denmark, and his Majeſty the King of Sweden, ſhall be immediately invited by his Imperial Majeſty, in the name of the two contracting parties, to accede to the preſent convention, and at the ſame time to renew and confirm their reſpective treaties of commerce with his Britannic Majeſty; and his ſaid Majeſty engages, by acts which ſhall have eſtabliſhed that agreement, to render and reſtore to each of theſe powers, all the prizes that have been taken from them, as well as the territories and countries under their dominions, which have been conquered by the arms of his Britannic Majeſty ſince the rupture, in the ſtate in which thoſe poſſeſſions were found at the period at which the troops of his Britannic Majeſty entered them. The orders of his ſaid Majeſty for the reſtitution of thoſe prizes and conqueſts ſhall be immediately expedited after the exchange of the ratifications of the

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acts by which Sweden and Denmark shall accede to the present treaty.

X. The present convention shall be ratified by the two contracting parties, and the ratifications exchanged at St Petersburgh in the space of two months at furthest, from the day of the signature. In faith of which, the respective plenipotentiaries have caused to be made two copies perfectly similar, signed with their hands, and have sealed with arms.

Done at St Petersburgh the 5th (17th of June), 1801.

(L. S.) N. Count de Pahlen.
(L. S.) St Helen's.

Formula of the Passports and Sea Letters which ought to be delivered in the respective Admiralties of the States of the two High Contracting Parties to the Ships of War and Merchant Vessels which shall sail from them, conformable to article 4, of the present Treaty.

Be it known that we have given leave and permission to N—, of the city and place of N—, master or conductor of the ship N—, belonging to N—, of the port of N—, of — tons or thereabouts, now leaving in the port or harbour of N—, to sail from thence to N—, laden with N—, on account of N—, after the said ship shall have been visited before its departure in the usual manner by the officers appointed for that purpose; and the said N—, or such other as shall be vested with powers to replace him, shall be obliged to produce in every port or harbour which he shall enter with the said vessel, to the officers of the place, the present licence, and to carry the flag of N— during his voyage.

In faith of which, &c.

Copy of the first separate Article of the Convention with the Court of London, signed the 5th (17th) of June, 1801.

The pure and magnanimous intentions of his Majesty the Emperor of all the Russias having already induced him to restore the vessels and goods of British subjects, which have been sequestered in Russia, his said Majesty confirms that explication in its whole extent; and his Britannic Majesty engages also to give immediately orders for taking off all sequestration laid upon the Russian, Danish, and Swedish properties, detained in English ports; and to prove more his sincere desire to terminate amicably the differences which have arisen between Great Britain and the Northern Courts, and in order that no new incident may throw obstacles in the way of this salutary work, his Britannic Majesty binds himself to give orders to the commanders by land and sea, that the armistice now subsisting with the courts of Denmark and Sweden shall be prolonged for a term of three months from the date of this day; and his Majesty the Emperor of all the Russias, guided by the same motives, undertakes, in the name of his allies, to have this armistice maintained during the said term.

This separate article, &c.
In faith of which, &c.

Copy of the second separate Article of the Convention with the Court of London, signed at St Petersburgh the 5th (17th) of June, 1801.

The differences and misunderstandings which subsisted between his Majesty the Emperor of all the Russias, and his Majesty the King of the united kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, being thus terminated, and the precautions taken by the present convention not giving further room to fear that they may be able to disturb in future the harmony and good understanding which the two high contracting parties have at heart to consolidate, their said Majesties confirm anew, by the present convention, the treaty of commerce of the 10th (Feb. 21, 1797) of which all the stipulations are here repeated, to be maintained in their whole extent.

This separate article, &c.
In faith of which, &c.

THE following is the treaty of peace concluded between Spain and Portugal:

As the object which his Catholic Majesty had in view, and which he considered as necessary for the good of Europe, when he declared war against Portugal, is obtained, his Majesty has resolved, after conferences had, to restore and renew the bonds of friendship and good understand by means of a treaty of peace; and the plenipotentiaries of the three Belligerent powers having met together, have agreed to conclude two treaties, which in their essential

eſſential parts will be but one; as the guarantee will be interchangeable, and will ceaſe with reſpect to both when either ſhall be infringed. To carry into full effect this important object, his Catholic Majeſty the King of Spain, and his Royal Highneſs the Prince of Portugal and Algarve, have granted their full powers, as follows; namely, his Chatholic Majeſty the King of Spain, to his excellency don Manuel de Godoy Alverez de Faria Rios Sanchez y Zargoza, Prince of Peace, Lieutenant of Alcudia, Lord of Soto di Roma and of the diſtricts of Albala, Count of Everamonto, Grandee of Spain of the firſt claſs, perpetual Governor of the city of Madrid, and of the towns of Santiago, Cadiz, Malaga, and Ecija, Knight of the Illuſtrious order of the Golden Fleece, Grand Croſs of the diſtinguiſhed Spaniſh order of Charles III, Commander of Valencia, del Ventoſo, Rivera, &c. Grand Croſs of the order of St John, Counſellor of State, Chamberlain, Generaliſſimo, and Captain General of the armies of his Catholic Majeſty, and Colonel General of the Swiſs troops, &c. and his Royal Highneſs the Regent of Portugal and Algrave, to his Excellency Louis Pinto de Souza Contintro, Counſellor of State, Grand Croſs of the order of Aviz, Knight of the Illuſtrious order of the Golden Fleece, Miniſter and Secretary of State for the affairs of the kingdom, and Lieutenant General of its armies; who, after having exchanged and verified their full powers in good and proper form, have concluded and ſigned, according to the orders and intentions of their ſovereigns, the following articles:

Article I. There ſhall be peace, amity and good underſtanding between his Catholic Majeſty the King of Spain and the Prince Regent of Portugal and Algarve, as well by ſea as land, through the whole extent of their kingdoms and poſſeſſions; and all captures which ſhall be made by ſea, after the ratification of the preſent treaty, ſhall be faithfully reſtored, with all their goods and effects, or their reſpective value paid.

III. His Catholic Majeſty will reſtore to his Royal Highneſs the fortreſſes and places of Jurumena, Arrouches, Portalegre, Caſtle Davide, Barbacemas, Campo Major, and Ouguela, with all the territories hitherto conquered by his arms, or which may hereafter be conquered, with all their artillery, fire-arms, or other warlike ſtores, and in the ſame condition in which they were when they were ſurrendered to him: and his Catholic Majeſty will take as a conqueſt the fortreſs of Olivenza, with its territory and inhabitants, from the Guadina, and unite the ſame for ever to his own territory and ſubjects, ſo that the river abovementioned ſhall be the boundary of the reſpective kingdoms in that part.

IV. His Royal Highneſs the Prince regent of Portugal and Algarvh, will not permit any depots of prohibited and contraband goods, which may be prejudicial to the intereſts of the crown of Spain, to be formed on the frontiers of his kingdom, excluſive of ſuch as appertain to the revenues of the crown of Portugal, or are neceſſary for the conſumption of the reſpective territory in which they are eſtabliſhed; and if this or any other article ſhall not be maintained, the treaty which is now concluded between the three powers, including the interchangeable guarantee, ſhall be null and void, as is expreſſed in the articles of the preſent treaty.

V. His Royal Highneſs will immediately repair and make good all damages or injuries which the ſubjects of his Catholic Majeſty may have ſuſtained during the preſent war, from the ſhips of Great Britain or the ſubjects of the Court of Portugal, and for which they can rightfully claim indemnification; and in like manner his Catholic Majeſty engages to make ſuitable ſatisfaction for all captures which may have been made by the Spaniards before the preſent war, in violation of or within a cannon-ſhot of the Portuguese territory.

VI. Within the ſpace of three months, reckoning from the ratification of the preſent treaty, his Royal Highneſs will pay to the treaſury of his Catholic Majeſty the expences left unpaid when they withdrew from the war with France, and which were occaſioned by the ſame, according to the eſtimate given in by the ambaſſador of his Catholic Majeſty, or which may be

be given in anew; with the exception, however, of any error, that may be found in the ſaid eſtimates.

VII. As ſoon as the preſent treaty ſhall be ſigned, all hoſtilities ſhall ceaſe on both ſides within twenty-four hours, without any contributions or requiſitions being laid after that time on any of the conquered places, except ſuch as may be allowed to friendly troops in time of peace: and as ſoon as this treaty ſhall be ratified, the Spaniſh troops ſhall leave the Portugueſe territory within ſix days, and ſhall begin their march within ſix hours, after receiving notice, without offering any violence or injury to the inhabitants in their way, and they ſhall pay for whatever may be neceſſary for them, according to the current price of the country.

VIII. All priſoners which may have been taken by ſea and land, ſhall, within fifteen days of the ratification of the preſent treaty, be ſet at liberty, and delivered up on both ſides; and at the ſame time, all debts which they may have contracted during their impriſonment, ſhall be paid. The ſick and wounded ſhall remain in the reſpective hoſpitals, there to be taken care of, and in like manner delivered up as ſoon as they ſhall be able to begin their march.

IX. His Catholic Majeſty engages to guarantee to his Royal Highneſs the Prince Regent of Portugal, the entire poſſeſſion of all his ſtates and poſſeſſions, without the leaſt exception or reſerve.

X. The two high contracting parties engage to renew the treaty of defenſive alliance which exiſted between the two monarchies, but with ſuch clauſes and alterations as the connections entered into by the Spaniſh monarchy with the French Republic may demand; and in the ſame treaty ſhall be regulated what aid ſhall be mutually afforded ſhould neceſſity require.

XI. The preſent treaty ſhall be ratified within ten days after it is ſigned, or ſooner if poſſible. In witneſs of this, we, the underſigned miniſters plenipotentiary, have ſubſcribed the preſent treaty with our own hands, and ſealed it with our arms.

Done at Badajos, June 6, 1801.

(L. S.) The Prince of Peace.

(L. S.) Louis Pinto de Souza.

MONTHLY REGISTER.

GAZETTE INTELLIGENCE.

Downing-Street, Oct. 21.

A diſpatch of which the following is a copy, was this day received (in duplicate) at the office of the Right Hon. Lord Hobart.

Head quarters, Camp before Alexandria, *Sept.* 5, 1801.

My Lord,

I have now the ſatisfaction to inform your Lordſhip, that the forts and town of Alexandria have ſurrendered to his Majeſty's troops, who on the 2d inſt. took poſſeſſion of the entrenched camp, the heights above Pompey's Pillar, the redoubt de Bain, and the Fort Triangular. By the capitulation the garriſon are to be embarked for France in the courſe of ten days, provided the ſhipping is in a ſtate of preparation to receive them.

The operations againſt the enemy's works commenced on the 14th of Auguſt.

Major-General Coote embarked with a ſtrong corps on the inundation in the night between the 16th and 17th of Auguſt. He effected his landing to the weſtward of Alexandria, with little or no oppoſition, and immediately inveſted the ſtrong caſtle of Marabout, ſituated at the entrance of the weſtern harbour of Alexandria.

On the eaſt ſide of the town two attacks were made to get poſſeſſion of ſome heights in front of the entrenched poſition of the enemy. I entruſted the conduct of the attack againſt their right, to Major General Craddock; and that againſt their left to Major General Moore.—Thoſe two officers perfectly executed my intentions, and performed the ſervice committed to their care with much preciſion and ability.—The action was neither obſtinate nor ſevere, and our loſs is but ſmall; but it afforded one more opportunity to diſplay the promptneſs of Britiſh officers

officers, and the heroiſm of Britiſh ſoldiers.

A part of General Doyle's brigade, the 30th regiment (but under the immediate command of Colonel Spencer), had taken poſſeſſion of a hill in front of the enemy's right. General Menou, who was in perſon in that part of the French entrenched camp, directly oppoſite to our poſt, ordered about 600 men to take a ſortie, to drive us from our poſition.—The enemy advanced, in column, with fixed bayonets, and without firing a ſhot, till they got very cloſe to the 30th regiment, to whom Colonel Spencer gave an immediate order to charge, though they did not conſiſt of more than 200 men; he was obeyed with a ſpirit and determination worthy the higheſt panegyric. The enemy were driven back to their entrenchment, in the greateſt confuſion —they had many killed and wounded, and ſeveral taken priſoners.

On the night between the 18th and 19th, Major-General Coote opened batteries againſt the caſtle of Marabout: An attack was alſo made from the ſea by ſeveral Turkiſh corvettes, and the launches and boats of the fleet, under the guidance of the Hon. Capt. Cochrane; great perſeverance and exertions were required to get up heavy guns through a difficult and almoſt impracticable country; but the troops executed this painful and arduous ſervice with ſuch zeal and continued exertion, that the fort capitulated in the night of the 21ſt; the garriſon conſiſted of about 180 men, and were commanded by a Chief de Brigade.

On the morning of the 22d Major-General Coote marched from Marabout to attack a ſtrong corps poſted in his front, in order to cover the approach to Alexandria; the arrangements of that excellent officer appear to have been able and judicious, and were attended with the moſt complete ſucceſs; he drove the enemy every where, though ſtrongly poſted, and in a country which oppoſed uncommon obſtacles to the progreſs of troops. The French ſuffered extremely in the action, and retreated in much confuſion, leaving their wounded and ſeven pieces of cannon behind them.

On the 24th, batteries were opened againſt the redoubt de Baen: and on the 23th, at night, Major-General Coote ſurpriſed the enemy's advanced poſts, when ſeven officers and fifty men were taken priſoners; this ſervice was gallantly performed by Lieutenant-Colonel Smith, with the 1ſt battalion of the 20th regiment, and a ſmall detachment of dragoons, under the orders of Lieutenant Kelly of the 26th. The enemy endeavoured to regain poſſeſſion of the ground from which they had been driven, but were repulſed with loſs.

On the morning of the 26th we opened four batteries on each ſide of the town againſt the entrenched camp of the French, which ſoon ſilenced their fire, and induced them to withdraw many of their guns.

On the 27th, in the evening, General Menou ſent an Aid-de-camp to requeſt an armiſtice for three days, in order to give time to prepare a capitulation, which, after ſome difficulties and delays, was ſigned on the 2d of September.

I have the honour to incloſe you a copy of the capitulation, and alſo a liſt of the number of perſons for whom the enemy have required ſhipping; by this it appears that the total of the garriſon of Alexandria conſiſted of upwards of eight thouſand ſoldiers, and one thouſand three hundred ſailors.

This arduous and important ſervice has at length been brought to a concluſion. The exertions of the individuals have been ſplendid and meritorious. I regret that the bounds of a diſpatch will not allow me to ſpecify the whole, or to mention the name of every perſon who has diſtinguiſhed himſelf in the public ſervice. I have received ſupport and aſſiſtance from the General officers of the army. The conduct of the troops of every deſcription has been exemplary in the higheſt degree; there has been much to applaud, and nothing to reprehend; their order and regularity in the camp have been as conſpicuous as their courage in the field. To the Quarter-Maſter General, Lieutenant-Colonel Anſtruther, I owe much for his unwearied induſtry and zeal in the public ſervice, and for the aid, advice, and co-operation, which he has at all times afforded me. Brigadier-General Lawſon, who commanded the artillery, and Captain Bryce, the

Chief Engineer, have both great merit in their different departments. The local ſituation of Egypt preſents obſtacles of a moſt ſerious kind to military operations on an extended ſcale. The ſkill and perſeverance of thoſe two officers have overcome difficulties which at firſt appeared almoſt inſurmountable.

Lieut.-Colonel Lendenthal, who has always acted with the Turks, deſerves my utmoſt acknowledgements; his activity and diligence have been unremitted, and he has introduced amongſt them an order and regularity which does him the higheſt honour.

During the courſe of the long ſervice on which we have been engaged, Lord Keith has at all times given me the moſt able aſſiſtance and counſel. The labour and fatigue of the navy have been continued and exceſſive;—it has not been of one day, or of one week, but of months together. In the Bay of Aboukir, on the new inundation, and on the Nile, for one hundred and ſixty miles, they have been employed without intermiſſion, and have ſubmitted to many privations with a chearfulneſs and patience highly creditable to them and advantageous to the public ſervice.

Sir Sidney Smith had originally the command of the ſeamen who landed from the fleet; he continued on ſhore till after the capture of Roſetta, and returned on board the Tigre a ſhort time before the appearance of Admiral Gantheaume's ſquadron on the coaſt. He was preſent in the three actions of the 8th, 13th, and 21ſt of March, when he diſplayed that ardour of mind for the ſervice of his country, and that noble intrepidity for which he has been ever ſo conſpicuous. Captain Stevenſon, of the Europa, ſucceeded him, and I have every reaſon to be ſatisfied with his zeal and conduct. The crews of the gun-boats diſplayed great gallantry under his guidance, in the new inundation; and much approbation is alſo due to the naval officers who acted under his orders.

Captain Preſsland of the Regulus has had the direction for many months paſt of all Greek ſhips in our employment, and of thoſe belonging to the Commiſſariot. He has been active, zealous, and indefatigable, and merits my warmeſt approbation. I muſt therefore beg leave particularly to recommend this old and meritorious officer to your Lordſhip's protection.

Allow me to expreſs an humble hope, that the army in Egypt have gratified the warmeſt wiſhes and expectations of their country. To them every thing is due, and to me nothing. It was my fate to ſucceed a man who created ſuch a ſpirit and eſtabliſhed ſuch a diſcipline amongſt them, that little has been left for me to perform, except to follow his maxims, and to endeavour to imitate his conduct.

This diſpatch will be delivered to your Lordſhip by Colonel Abercromby, an officer of conſiderable ability, and worthy of the great name which he bears. He will one day, I truſt, emulate the virtues and talents of his never ſufficiently to be lamented father.

I have the honour to be, &c.

J. H. Hutchinson,
Lieut.-General.

(Follow the Articles of Capitulation; the principal difference from thoſe of Cairo are, that all the ſhipping in the harbour, and the Arabian manuſcripts, ſtatues, &c. collected by the French are to be left behind.)

Camp, weſt of Alexandria,
Sir, Auguſt, 23.

Captain Cochrane, with ſeven ſloops of war, having entered into the weſtern harbour of Alexandria, on the evening of the 21ſt inſtant, and anchored on my left flank, I immediately determined to move forward, and take as advanced a poſition near the town of Alexandria as prudence and ſecurity would permit.

The neceſſary arrangements having been made in the morning of the 22d, the troops advanced againſt the enemy, who was ſtrongly poſted upon a ridge of high hills, having his right flank ſecured by two heavy guns, and his left by two batteries containing three more, with many field-pieces placed in the intervals of his line.

The army moved through the Sand-Hills in three columns, the Guards forming two upon the right near the lake, and Major General Ludlow's brigade the third upon the left, having the 1ſt battalion of the 27th regiment

in

in advance; Major-General Finch's brigade compoſed a reſerve, and was deſtined to give its ſupport wherever it might be required.

In this manner, having our field artillery with the advanced guard, the troops continued to move forward with the greateſt coolneſs and regularity, under a very heavy fire of cannon and ſmall arms, forcing the enemy to retreat conſtantly before them, and driving them to their preſent poſition within the walls of Alexandria.

Major-Generals Ludlow, Earl of Cavan, and Finch, upon this, as upon all other occaſions, have given me all poſſible ſupport, and deſerve every commendation for the preciſion and regularity with which they led on their reſpective columns.

The exertions of the Captains commanding the ſhips of war upon our left, and of the officers commanding the gun-boats upon our right, were attended with the beſt effect; their continued and unremitting fire kept the enemy in check.

To Captain Cochrane I feel extremely obliged, for his zeal and conſtant readineſs to afford every aſſiſtance in his power. Captain Stevenſon, who commanded the gun-boats upon the lake, alſo calls for my earneſt approbation of his conduct.

Permit me, Sir, to repeat to you the intrepid and gallant behaviour of the whole of the troops during the affair of yeſterday, which laſted from ſix until ten o'clock in the morning. Their bravery was only equalled by the cool and regular manner in which they advanced under a ſevere and heavy cannonade. Happy am I to add that our loſs is only trifling, when compared to the advantages we have gained, and the difficulties we had to ſurmount in a country, which, at every ſtep, afforded the enemy the means of making the moſt deſperate reſiſtance.

The loſs of the enemy muſt have been conſiderably greater than ours. It is impoſſible for me to aſcertain the numbers. Seven pieces of heavy ordnance were left behind by the French, in the hurry of their retreat, and have fallen into our hands.

I feel much indebted to Lieutenant-Colonel Duncan, Quartermaſter-General, for his judicious arrangements, and for his conduct during the whole of yeſterday; he deſerves my ſincere thanks.

Incloſed I have the honour to tranſmit an account of the killed and wounded, &c.

(Signed) EYRE COOTE, Maj.-Gen.
(A true copy) JAS. KEMPT, Lt. Col. and Secretary.

To Lieut-General Sir J. Hely Hutchinſon.

Camp, weſt of Alexandria,
SIR, Aug. 23.

I have the honour to incloſe the ſummons, as alſo the articles of capitulation of the fort of Marabout.

The ſpeedy and fortunate reduction of that poſt, ſo important to our fleets, was, I am happy to ſay, effected without any loſs on our ſide, and calls upon me to lay before you the unremitting zeal and attention of Lieut.-Colonel Darby, who, with the 1ſt battalion of the 54th regiment, covered the attack; the very judicious manner in which he poſted the light company of that corps, who, by being placed on an adjoining rock, ſilenced the guns by their muſketry, greatly accelerated the fall of the fort.

I alſo feel myſelf indebted for the effectual exertions of Major Cookſon, of the Royal Artillery, and for the prompt arrangements of Captain Ford, the commanding engineer.

I beg to tranſmit a return of the priſoners taken, as alſo the ordnance and ſtores found in the fort.

I have the honour to be, &c.
(Signed) EYRE COOTE, Maj.-Gen.
(A true copy) JAS. KEMPT, Lt.-Col. and Secretary.

SUMMONS *of the Fort of Marabout.*

SIR, Camp, Aug. 21.

As, after the events of this day, and the means employed againſt the fort which you command, there remain no hopes of your being able to defend it, or even to retire into Alexandria, I ſummon you, in the name of humanity, to ſurrender on the terms which ſhall be granted to you, otherwiſe you will here be anſwerable for all the conſequences that may enſue, being determined to employ the whole of the Britiſh and Ottoman forces under my command to compel you to ſurrender.

I have the honour to be, &c.
(Signed) EYRE COOTE, Maj.-Gen.

To the Officer Commanding Fort Marabout.

ANSWER.

Fort Marabout, 3d Fructidor,
SIR, An. 9. 1801.

I have the honour to lay before you the terms of capitulation which the garriſon of Marabout require; and from the generoſity which characteriſes your nation, I promiſe myſelf that you will agree to them.

I have the honour to be, &c.
(Signed) ETIENNE.
(A true copy) JAS. KEMPT, Lt.-Col. and Secretary.

(Follow the terms.)

Camp, weſt of Alexandria,
SIR, Aug. 26.

Being anxious to puſh my picquets upon the left as far as poſſible towards the enemy's advanced work, the Redoubt de Bain, I directed Lieutenant-Colonel Smith, with the 1ſt battalion of the 20th regiment, aſſiſted with a ſmall detachment of the 26th light dragoons, commanded by Lieutenant Kelly, to attack and drive in the French outpoſts upon the right of their poſition. He was to be ſupported by a battalion of infantry, diſpoſed for that purpoſe on the ſand-hills.

Soon after dark laſt night, Lieut.-Colonel Smith commenced the attack by turning the left of the enemy's picquets, and ſcouring the hills as he advanced.

The cool and ſpirited conduct of that officer and the corps under his command, as alſo the detachment of the 26th dragoons, is well deſerving of praiſe; not a man attempted to load, and the whole was effected by the bayonet.—The loſs of the enemy in this affair amounted to upwards of one hundred men killed, wounded, and taken; of the latter I incloſe the return.

This ſervice was performed on our ſide with the loſs only of three men ſlightly wounded; and has placed me in a ſituation to erect a battery within 600 yards of the Redoubt de Bain.

The enemy, however, extremely exaſperated at our ſucceſs, made ſeveral attempts to regain the ground he had loſt; with this view he kept up a very heavy fire of cannon and muſketry for about an hour, when, finding all his endeavours ineffectual, he retired, leaving us peaceful poſſeſſors of the advantage we had gained in the early part of the night.

Incloſed is a return of our loſs in the latter part of the affair.

I have the honour to be, &c.
(Signed) EYRE COOTE, Maj.-Gen.
(A true copy) JAS. KEMPT, Lt.-Col. and Secretary.

To Lieut-Gen. the Hon. Sir J. Hely Hutchinſon.

General Return of the Killed, Wounded, and Miſſing of the army under the command of Lieut.-Gen. Sir John Hely Hutchinſon, K. B. at the ſiege of Alexandria, &c. Aug. 1801.

General Total---13 rank and file, 3 horſes killed; 6 officers, 4 ſerjeants, 1 drummer, 113 rank and file wounded.

JOHN ABERCROMBY, Adj.-Gen.

FOREIGN INTELLIGENCE.

RUSSIA.

Ruſſia has ratified her treaty with France. (The articles will be given in our next.)

BATAVIAN REPUBLIC.

The plan of the new conſtitution is already printed, and conſiſts of 108 articles. The Executive-directory is to be aboliſhed, and in its ſtead a State-directory inſtituted, to conſiſt of twelve perſons, one to go out yearly. There is to be a legiſlative-body, conſiſting of thirty five members. The territory of the republic is to be divided into eight departments, whoſe boundaries are to be the ſame with thoſe of the old provinces.

The allowance of members of the legiſlative-body is to be 4000 florins. They are to meet twice during the year, and are to ſit from the 15th of April, to the 1ſt of June, and from the 15th of October to the 15th of December. On any emergency it will be competent for them to aſſemble as often as neceſſary, and the government is to have the power of convoking them.

Military force, in theſe concerns, has not been employed, nor has General Augereau, nor the Miniſter of the French Republic, had the ſmalleſt concern in them.

GERMANY.

The diet of Ratiſbon has at length, it is ſaid, drawn up, and diſpatched to Vienna, its concluſum. Bohemia, Brandenburg, Bavaria, Wirtemberg, the

the Grand Maſter of the Teutonic Order and Caſſel, are to treat in concert with the French government, and ſubmit the reſult of their operations to his Imperial Majeſty and the Empire to be ratified. The deputation are to have full powers, but are to obſerve the reſtrictive clauſe by which the deputation of the Empire at the congreſs of Raſtadt gave, in their note of the 4th of April 1798, their adherence to the principle of indemnities. In this note, the deputation "conſented to the indemnities then demanded, by the mode of ſecularizations for the loſſes ſuſtained on the left bank of the Rhine, and that new negociations ſhould be entered into upon the ſubject, in ſuch a manner, however, as to proceed in it with all the precaution and reſtriction which are eſſentially neceſſary for the maintenance of the Germanic Empire in all relations, as well as for the well-being of the ſtates, members, and ſubjects of the Empire."

The Archduke Anthony, Prince of Hungary and Bohemia, was on the 7th inſtant choſen Elector of Cologne.

Letters from the Hague announce the acceptance of the New Conſtitution by a large majority.

Letters from Bern, of the 30th Sept. ſtate, that the following Articles of the New Conſtitution have been accepted, by ſixty-five votes againſt ſixteen.

1. The integrity of Helvetia is the fundamental article of the Helvetic Conſtitution.

2. The Helvetic Republic only forms one State, divided into Cantons.

3. There is only one Helvetic right of citizen, and no particular privilege for each Canton.

With regard to the ceſſion of the Walloon country to France, it was reſolved, by ſeventy-four votes againſt ſeven, that the Canton of Valais ſhall farther belong to the Helvetic Republic, and not be ceded, unleſs France were to take it by force. Many French troops are marching from Italy to the Walloon country, but their deſign is not avowed.

The French Biſhops of the antient eſtabliſhment, reſident in France, have, in obedience to the Pope's Brief, reſigned their Sees.

TURKEY.

The Brunn Gazette ſays, the inſurrection in Belgrade is only a part of a very extenſive plan, as the flames of ſedition broke out at the ſame time at Conſtantinople, at Adrianople, Philipoli, Niſſa, and other places, where the inhabitants roſe upon the magiſtrates, and, dividing into parties, fought furiouſly with each other. Civil war appears likely to become general throughout European Turkey. The commandant of Niſſa was obliged to fly. The Pacha of Belgrade, before the late commotions there, was much eſteemed at Conſtantinople, and appointed Seraſkier by the Porte.

The reduction of Alexandria has occaſioned the moſt enthuſiaſtic joy at Conſtantinople. The cannon of the Seraglio were fired, and the city illuminated, on the night of the 21ſt ult. The Grand Signior has ordered fifty gold medals to be ſtruck, bearing a creſcent and a ſtar in the centre, with a ſuitable inſcription, to be diſtributed amongſt the Engliſh Officers in Egypt.

FRANCE.

France has, beſide her preliminary treaty of peace with England, ſigned and ratified others with Ruſſia, Portugal, and Turkey. In conſequence of the ratification of the preliminaries with Great Britain, the Conſuls of the French republic have decreed, that on Nov. 9, a feſtival ſhall be celebrated in all the extent of the republic. On the 14th of October, the members of the Conſervative Senate proceeded to the palace of the government, to congratulate the Conſuls on the ſigning of the preliminaries. Kellerman, the Preſident, expreſſed the ſentiments of the ſenate; and the Firſt Conſul anſwered, that the news of an event which had ſo much influence on the happineſs of the French people, had with reaſon excited the joy of the Conſervative Senate, which had conſtantly ſhewn itſelf the protector of liberal and pacific ideas.

LONDON.

Amidſt the univerſal apprehenſion of all the parties, that the deſirable and glorious event of Peace was as improbable as at any period during the war, and that the negociation for the attainment of it was abruptly broken off, the Preliminaries for a Peace between

tween Great Britain and France were ſuddenly and unexpectedly ſigned on Thurſday evening, the firſt day of October, between Lord Hawkeſbury and M. Otto; and confirmed by the arrival of the agreeable ratification of the Preliminary Articles from the Chief Conſul of France on Saturday the 10th day of October.

In London, as well as in all the provincial towns, without one exception, ſo far as we have been able to learn, the moſt general and voluntary demonſtrations that could be expreſſed of heart-felt ſatisfaction for peace, ſo unexpectedly and honourably obtained. The ſtreets were one continued blaze of light, and many beautiful and ſignificant tranſparent ſubjects were diſplayed.

During the rejoicings in the capital, the moſt tremendous ſtorm of thunder, lightning, and rain came on, which ſoon diſperſed the crowds that were abroad. —The lightning preceded the thunder and rain full one hour, and was uncommonly vivid. The day had been unuſually fine, and warm for the ſeaſon of the year. The ſtorm laſted till toward three o'clock next morning.

Lately died at Briſtol, O'Brien, the famous Iriſh giant. He was eight feet ſix inches in height.

A very extraordinary robbery lately took place in the Houſe of Lords. The whole of the gold lace, and all the ornaments of the Throne, the King's arms excepted, were ſtripped off, and carried away.

Lord Hobart, in a circular letter to all the Lord Lieutenants in the kingdom, has, by the King's command, expreſſed his Majeſty's "deep and laſting ſenſe of their ſteady attachment to our eſtabliſhed Conſtitution, and that loyalty, ſpirit, and perſeverance, which have been manifeſted by the ſeveral Corps of Yeomanry and Volunteers in every part of this kingdom."—Further, that they (the Lords Lieutenants), at the next meetings of the Corps, will, in his Majeſty's name, thank them, and requeſt that "they will continue themſelves in readineſs for immediate ſervice," until the Definitive Peace is ſigned, as, till then, it is neceſſary that there ſhould be no relaxation in the preparations which have been made for the general defence. This letter likewiſe directs the ſuſpenſion of the meaſures ordered purſuant to the Act of the 38 Geo. III. in the event of invaſion.

EDINBURGH.

Peace.

Upon the termination of a conteſt, in which, from its peculiar nature, the paſſions of men have been agitated and inflamed, it is natural to expect the ſame extremes of opinion which have been evinced by different perſons, and by different parties, during its continuance. Some contend that *any* peace, upon *any* terms, in the preſent ſtate of Great Britain, is preferable to the continuation of war; on the other hand, ſome object to the peace, becauſe war is preferable to any peace in the preſent ſtate of France.

By a third party the peace is condemned, becauſe all has not been obtained which has been contended for. The advocates for peace enquire, Is it a reproach to Miniſters that, left alone in a conteſt in which they engaged with other powers, they have not attained every thing they aimed at when the confederacy was entire? If it is true that France has a more extended dominion than Engliſhmen can contemplate without anxiety, is this the fault of the Miniſters of this country, or of thoſe powers, who, having entered into a confederacy to keep her within her own limits, afterwards deſerted it, and left us to carry on the conteſt alone? The conteſt, they ſay, is cloſed with honour and glory to the country, and that, conſidering all the circumſtances in which both nations are placed, the terms of peace held out that, which Miniſters have always contended to be eſſential in any peace, *ſecurity* to this country. This opinion they reſt on our relative ſtrength---on the means we poſſeſs of improving that ſtrength---and, above all, on the reputation and character which we have acquired in the eyes of all Europe during the recent war, by the exploits of our arms, and by the good faith, the firmneſs, and the generoſity which we have ſhewn to every nation which has been in alliance with us.

If it be ſaid that we have exhauſted much of our reſources in the courſe of this war, ſo has France alſo---we are

to look to the point from which each nation ſtarts; and when we are told that France is to rival us in our trade and manufactures, we muſt obſerve that this has often been threatened in former times, but never effected---that both the diſpoſition and the capital are wanting---that for a nation to become wealthy and powerful by the means of commerce, its people muſt poſſeſs cuſtoms and habits which never yet belonged to the people of France; and that, though the French revolution has made great changes, it has not created any large bodies of wealthy men, diſpoſed, as in this country, to increaſe that wealth through the medium of commerce.

We have eſcaped, ſay they, from a great danger and difficulty, which we could not avoid, with credit and honour to ourſelves; and that if we fairly contemplate our future proſpects, we ſhall find nothing that ought to diſmay us, nothing which ought to excite alarm for the ſafety, the independence, or the greatneſs of the nation.

Such, it is contended, is the outline of our relative ſituation as to France, upon all which grounds the peace was juſtifiable, to ſay nothing of the ſaving of multitudes of precious lives, and much valuable treaſure to the country.

When the particulars of the treaty come under parliamentary diſcuſſion we ſhall have an opportunity of laying the ſubject more fully before our readers, mean time we may juſt notice, that the very ſound of peace has produced a kind of electric exultation throughout Great Britain; the populace, eaſily elated or depreſſed, ſeem to feel the news as the acquiſition of an unexpected bleſſing; and if the general joy it has produced be a ſymptom of general approbation of the meaſure, it ſhould ſeem as if no peace could be more popular.

With the return of peace, the proſpect of plenty is no ſmall addition to our comforts. Accounts from all corners, not only agree in ſtating the preſent crop as greatly exceeding a medium one, but that it has alſo been uncommonly well got in. There has been nothing loſt by ſhaking winds, nor any ſpoiled by rotting rains; and, even in the moſt muirland diſtricts, the oats have been allowed to ripen. The increaſe of the potatoes is truly wonderful, and the ſize to which they have grown is greatly beyond any thing ever experienced in Scotland before; ſome are found to weigh even 4 lbs.

Magiſtrates of Edinburgh.

Oct. 8. Tueſday the Magiſtrates and Council proceeded to the election of Magiſtrates for the year enſuing; and yeſterday the Council was filled up, and the government of the city veſted in the following gentlemen:

Lord Provoſt---The Right Hon. WILLIAM FETTES, of Comelybank, re-elected.

Bailies—NIEL M'VICAR, Eſq; ARCHIBALD GILCHRIST, Eſq; ARCHIBALD CAMPBELL, Eſq; RICHARD BANNANTYNE, Eſq.

Dean of Guild—THOMAS HENDERSON, Eſq.

Treaſurer--- JAMES CARFRAE, Eſq.

Old Provoſt---JAMES JACKSON, Eſq.

Old Bailies---Malcolm Wright, James Dewar, Thomas M'Ritchie, Thomas Campbell, Eſquires.

Old Dean of Guild--- David Williſon, Eſq.

Old Treaſurer, and College Treaſurer---J. Fairbairn, Eſq.

Merchant Councillors---John Muir, Alex. Anderſon, William Tennant.

Trades Councillors----Andrew Wood, William Fraſer.

Council Deacons---James Law, Conveener; James Mackay, Adam Dalmahoy, Andrew Milligan, Wm Ranken, Andrew Wilſon.

Extraordinary Council Deacons---Archibald Stewart, Robert Norrie, John Thin, John Yule, Archibald Douglas, Andrew Gardiner, Peter Pridie, Adam Brooks.

James Dewar, Eſq; Admiral of Leith.

Thomas M'Ritchie, Eſq; Baron Bailie of Cannongate and Calton.

Thomas Campbell, Eſq; Baron Bailie of Portſburgh and Potterow.

Mr John Muir, Captain of Orange Colours.

During the magiſtracy of Provoſt Fettes, this year, many plans of improvement have been adopted, the moſt conſpicuous of which is, the important one of conſtructing Wet Docks, and enlarging the Harbour of Leith. Theſe improvements will be much accelerated by the return of peace.

8. On Saturday evening, as a woman was hanging out ſome clothes to dry at a window in the Canongate, four

four ſtories high, the rope broke, ſhe fell to the ground, and was killed on the ſpot.

13. On the arrival of the poſt this morning, with the news of the ratification of the preliminaries of peace, the people took the horſes out of the mail coach, and having hoiſted the Britiſh colours over the French, and mounted a miller on the box, as an emblem of plenty, they dragged it, with repeated ſhouts, down to the Lord Provoſt's villa of Comely Bank, and afterwards for ſeveral hours through the principal ſtreets of the city, although it rained inceſſantly the whole time. At twelve o'clock, the Brigade of Volunteers paraded in the Meadows, and marched, by their right, to Prince's Street, where they formed line facing the Caſtle. The Royal Edinburgh and Mid Lothian artillery, with their field pieces, being previouſly drawn up on the Caſtlehill, facing the North. At one o'clock, the Royal ſtandard was hoiſted on the Caſtle, and the Weſt York militia manned the whole works round and round. The great guns of the Caſtle then fired a royal ſalute.—After which the Weſt York fired a *feu de joye* from right to left along the walls; General Vyſe and his ſuit appearing on the north eaſt baſtion—then the field pieces fired one round on the Caſtlehill—immediately after which, the line of volunteers in Prince's-Street fired a *feu de joye* from right to left of the whole line. Theſe firings were repeated three times by the militia, artillery, and volunteers—after which the whole troops, joined by the immenſe crowd of ſpectators, gave three cheers.

At ſix o'clock in the evening the bells were ſet a-ringing, and although an hour before the time, it ſeemed to be adopted by common conſent as the ſignal for the commencement of the illumination, for in an inſtant the city was one continued blaze of ſplendour and beauty. A number of tranſparences, which had been for ſome time in preparation, were exhibited, with appropriate emblems, inſcriptions, &c. —The whole was conducted with a degree of regularity beyond what could have been expected; even in the tumultuous expreſſion of popular joy more attention was ſhewn to the injunctions of the Magiſtrates than we have been accuſtomed to obſerve on occaſions of public rejoicing.

Brilliant illuminations alſo took place in every town of note in Scotland.

On the 12th (Monday night laſt) there was a moſt brilliant appearance at Edinburgh of that beautiful phenomenon the Aurora Borealis. The coruſcations were extremely vivid, luminous, and rapid.

The Synod of Glaſgow and Ayr, which met at Glaſgow, upon the 13th, appointed a public thankſgiving, on account of the abundant harveſt, and the return of plenty and peace.

The ſynod of Fife has done the ſame.

About 7 o'clock in the evening of the 25th, a beautiful Lunar Iris or Rainbow appeared at Edinburgh, in the weſtern part of the horizon.

We notice with pleaſure, that a handſome Tablet to the memory of the late learned Mr Thomas Ruddiman, Keeper of the Advocates Library, and who was Editor of the Caledonian Mercury for many years, is juſt now erecting in the new Grey Friars Church. It was prepared in London by deſire of Dr William Ruddiman, late of India, as a tribute of reſpect to his relation. The inſcription is in theſe words—

Sacred to the Memory
Of that celebrated ſcholar and
Worthy man
THOMAS RUDDIMAN,
Keeper of the Advocates Library near
fifty years.
Born Oct. 1674, within 3 miles of the
town of Banff;
Died at Edinburgh 19th January 1757,
In his eighty-third year.
Poſt obitum, beneſacta manent, æternaque Virtus
Non metuis Stygiis ne rapiatur aquis.
This Tablet is erected as a reſpectful
tribute
By his relative Wm. Ruddiman, M.D.
M.D.CCC.

26. On Friday morning was brought aſhore by one of the Newhaven boats, a very full grown ſhark—the length of this fiſh, from the top of the tail to the noſe (if meaſured), could not be leſs than between ſeven and eight feet. The rotundity of its body was truly aſtoniſhing.

Cr

Circuit Intelligence.

West.

Sept. 4. The Circuit Court of Juſticiary was opened at Inverary, upon Wedneſday the 2d current, by the Right Hon. Lord Methven. On the 3d the Court proceeded to the trial of *Duncan Sellars*, weaver in Campbeltown, *John Beith*, carter in Campbeltown, *Hugh Lamont*, at Aſkomellmore, near Campbeltown, and *Mary Darroch*, reſiding in Campbeltown, who were accuſed of being concerned in a mob and riot in the town of Campbeltown, in the month of February laſt, for the purpoſe of obſtructing the ſhipping of grain. Sellars was outlawed for not appearing; and the Jury having found that the other three perſons were aiding and abetting in the mob and riot libelled, under particular qualifications ſpecified in their verdict—the Court next day ſentenced John Beith to two months impriſonment in the tolbooth of Inverary, Hugh Lamont to ſix weeks impriſonment in ſaid tolbooth, and Mary Darroch to one month's impriſonment.—There was no other buſineſs before the Court.

Sept. 7. The Circuit Court of Juſticiary was opened at Glaſgow, by the Right Hon. Lord Juſtice Clerk and Lord Methven, when the following buſineſs came before them.

John Keſſock, accuſed of forging his Majeſty's ſtamps, was outlawed for non appearance.

Mr William Williamſon, of Carmyle Field, indicted for ſhooting *James Speirs*, while entering his boiling-houſe during the night of the firſt of May laſt, was, after a ſhort trial, upon the unanimous verdict of the Jury, diſmiſſed from the bar.

Andrew Speirs, for riding over and killing a child at Bridgeton, was next brought to the bar. After proof being heard, the Jury were incloſed, who returned a verdict, unanimouſly finding the pannel not guilty; when he was diſmiſſed from the bar.

Sept. 12. The Circuit Court of Juſticiary was opened at Stirling this day, by the Right Hon. Lord Juſtice Clerk, when *John Thomſon*, change-keeper at Falkirk, *Andrew Gray*, jun. at Aitkinhead, in the county of Clackmannan, and *Thomas Wordie*, ſmith in Falkirk, all accuſed of the crime of theft; *John Boyd*, wright at Carron Shore, in the county of Stirling, accuſed of the crime of rape; and *Hugh M'Intoſh*, journeyman baker in Falkirk, accuſed of the crime of murder, were all outlawed for not appearing. *William Young*, preſent priſoner in the tolbooth there, was, in conſequence of his own petition, and the conſent of his Majeſty's Advocate Depute, baniſhed from Scotland for life. There was no other buſineſs before the Court at this place.

South.

Sept. 5. The Circuit Court of Juſticiary was opened at Ayr yeſterday, by the Right Hon. Lord Armadale.

John Shedden, *Robert Caldwell*, *William Orr*, *William Stevenſon*, *John Pettigrew*, *John Gemmil*, *Robert Gemmil*, and *James Boyd*, accuſed of deforcing a conſtable in the legal diſcharge of his duty. Shedden, Caldwell, and Orr, were fugitated for not appearing; and the diet againſt the other pannels was deſerted *pro loco et tempore*, and they were committed to priſon upon a new warrant.

There was no other buſineſs at this place.

Sept. 10. The Circuit Court of Juſticiary was opened at Dumfries yeſterday, by the Right Hon. the Lords Craig and Armadale.

Hugh Wyllie, accuſed of forgery.—The diet againſt him was deſerted *pro loco et tempore*, and he was re-committed to priſon on a new warrant.

Robert Clement, accuſed of forgery, and *Jean Logie*, accuſed of houſe-breaking and theft, not appearing to ſtand trial, ſentence of fugitation was pronounced againſt them.

There was no other buſineſs at this place.

Sept 15. The Circuit Court of Juſticiary was opened at Jedburgh yeſterday by the Right Hon. the Lord Craig.

No criminal buſineſs at this place.

The Court gave judgment in a caſe of appeal; this ends the South Circuit.

North.

Oct. 9. The Circuit Court of Juſticiary was opened at Invernes, by the Right Hon. Lord Cullen, when the trial of *Andrew Fraſer*, late merchant in Invernes, was brought before the Court.

This trial was new and unprecedented in the annals of criminal juriſpru-

dence. The nature of the caſe was this:—The pannel had acted ſeveral years as the clerk and acting partner of a company in Inverneſs, under the firm of Wm. Inglis & Co., as alſo confidential clerk to the deceaſed Mr Inglis, as agent for the Britiſh Linen Company; in which capacities it was alleged that he had made ſundry falſe entries in the books kept for both concerns, with a view to defraud both the parties of ſeveral ſums of money, to the extent of 2000l. Sterling; and ſuch entries were made without the knowledge or approbation of Mr Inglis.

On the part of the pannel it was ſtated and acknowledged, that theſe entries were falſe and erroneous, but that they were made without any advantage to himſelf, and at the expreſs deſire of Mr Inglis, who was ſaid to have adopted the plan, with the view of accommodating the public, being narrowly reſtricted by the Directors of the Bank.

It was alſo ſtated, that the cauſe ought to have originated in the civil, and not in the criminal court, and in ſupport of this argument the counſel for the pannel quoted ſeveral appoſite paſſages from Mr Hume and other eminent writers.—But waving this and every other objection to the relevancy of the libel, it was contended that ſufficient time had not been allowed for the examination of the different books and accounts referred to in the indictment.

Lord Cullen, after hearing the counſel on both ſides at great length, continued the diet to next day, in order that he might have time to conſider the demand made by the priſoner. His Lordſhip, however, after fully conſidering the written proceedings referred to in the libel, and the nature of the demand made by the priſoner, as well as the apparently complicated nature of the caſe, was diſpoſed to allow the priſoner further time to prepare for his defence. He accordingly next day, pronounced the following interlocutor.

"The Lord Cullen having heard procurators at great length upon the libel, and defences, in reſpect the pannel has averred and offered to prove facts and circumſtances ſtrongly tending exculpate him from the charges contained in the libel, in caſe of further time being allowed him to bring ſuch proof, therefore in *hoc ſtatu* diſmiſſes the libel and pannel from the bar; reſerving to the proſecutor to bring his libel, of new, before any competent court as accords."

No other buſineſs came before the Court.

19. The Circuit Court of Juſticiary was opened at Aberdeen the 16th current, by the Right Hon. the Lords Dunſinnan and Cullen

John Clark, late crofter at Cairnrobin, in the pariſh of Banchory Devenich, was indicted for theft of a mare, which was found proven. The Public Proſecutor was, from ſome circumſtances in the caſe, induced to reſtrict the libel to an arbitrary puniſhment, and the Court adjudged the pannel to ſeven years tranſportation.

Alex. Milne, *James Hutcheon*, *James Day*, and *Andrew Tocher*, all crofters or late crofters in Slacks of Cairbanno, pariſh of Newdeer, were accuſed of breaking into the mill of Culth, and ſtealing from thence a large quantity of meal, which they carried off in carts. Day and Tocher abſconded, and were outlawed for not appearing to ſtand trial. The Jury found the libel proven againſt Milne; and, by a plurality of voices, found it not proven againſt Hutcheon. The pannel was ſentenced to tranſportation for five years.

Margaret Keith, wife of Dav. Tough, journeyman wright in Aberdeen, accuſed of ſeveral acts of theft, pled guilty, and the Jury having returned their verdict in terms of her confeſſion, ſhe is ſentenced to be impriſoned for nine months, and thereafter baniſhed from Scotland for life.

John Young, alias *Robertſon*, a travelling tinker, was indicted for the murder of James Davidſon, alias Hugh Graham, tinker, by ſtabbing him in the belly with a knife, upon the high road near the Church of Chapel of Garioch, in the month of April laſt. The commiſſion of the crime was diſtinctly proved, and the Jury returned their verdict, all in one voice finding the pannel guilty. The Lords decerned and adjudged the pannel to be hanged by the neck on a gibbet till he be dead, on Friday the 11th of December next, and his body to be delivered to the lecturer on Anatomy in the Mariſchal College, to be publicly diſſected and anatomized.

John

John French and *Peter French*, ſons of Alexander French, carrier, from the pariſh of Fyvie, were accuſed of houſe-breaking and theft. The Advocate Depute deſerted the diet againſt them *pro loco et tempore*; and the pannels were recommitted to priſon on a new warrant.

Margaret Craigbead, from Kiplaw, in the pariſh of Cruden, was accuſed of child murder. The Advocate Depute moved the Court to deſert the diet againſt the pannel *ſimpliciter*; which was accordingly done, and ſhe was diſmiſſed from the bar.

The Court afterwards determined an appeal in a civil cauſe, and concluded the buſineſs here at eleven o'clock on Saturday evening.

21. The Circuit Court of Juſticiary was opened at Perth this day, by Lords Dunſinnan and Cullen.

John Malloch was indicted for robbery, theft, and houſebreaking, by entering a houſe in the pariſh of Meigle, diſguiſed in women's cloaths, on a Sunday, in the forenoon, during divine ſervice, where having knocked down the miſtreſs of the houſe, he proceeded to break open the cheſts and drawers, and took therefrom a quantity of money, ſome bills and papers, linen and other articles. The Jury found the pannel guilty of the robbery and theft, but found the houſebreaking not proven. The Judges delivered their opinions, that as the crime of which the pannel was found guilty was clearly capital, and was beſides aggravated and atrocious in its nature, they had no choice of the puniſhment left, which behoved to be that of death. After receiving a ſuitable exhortation as to the employment of the ſhort time he had to live, the ſentence of death was paſſed on the pannel, to be executed here, on Friday the 18th day of December next.

David Melville, accuſed of the crime of horſe-ſtealing, was outlawed for non-appearance. His brother, *William Melville*, accuſed of the ſame crime, was found guilty upon his own confeſſion. The Advocate depute reſtricted the libel to an arbitrary puniſhment, and the pannel was ſentenced to tranſportation for 14 years.

Robert Hay, alias *James Colvin*, was found guilty, upon his own confeſſion, of ſheep ſtealing. He had ſtolen about forty ſheep at different times. The libel was alſo reſtricted, and the pannel ſentenced to be tranſported for 14 years.

Sentence of fugitation was pronounced againſt *Donald Grant*, accuſed of the crime of wilful fire-raiſing, he having abſconded and failed to appear.

Duncan Robertſon, accuſed of ſtealing a ſingle ſheep from a ſheep-fold, was brought to the bar. A certificate from the miniſter and elders of the pariſh of Blair, where Robertſon has hitherto reſided, was read to the Court, ſhewing that he was naturally ſilly, and not very capable of diſtinguiſhing betwixt right and wrong, and that he had maintained a good character until this crime was charged againſt him. He threw himſelf on the mercy of the Court, and was ſentenced to three weeks impriſonment in the jail of Perth.

Barbara Watſon was accuſed of wilfully ſetting fire to a dwelling-houſe at Croſhills, in the pariſh of Ballingry. The Jury returned a verdict, finding her *Not guilty*; ſhe was, of courſe, abſoilzied and diſmiſſed from the bar.

The diet was deſerted *pro loco et tempore* againſt *Andrew Huggan*, accuſed of theft, and againſt *John Menzies*, alias *Manners*, and *Elizabeth Baillie*, alſo accuſed of theft.

Several appeals from inferior courts were heard.

It may be proper to obſerve, for thoſe who bring appeals before the Circuit Court, that, by act of adjournal 21ſt July 1749, appeals are ordained to be lodged in the hands of the clerk of Court on or before the firſt day of the ayre.

THE month of October has continued throughout open and mild. Accounts from all parts of Scotland mention the unuſual mildneſs and fertility of the ſeaſon; of potatoes weighing, from 1 to 3 pounds, and many inſtances of an uncommon number of roots at one ſtem, ſecond crops of apples, pears, ſtrawberries, &c. in ſhort, it has been one of the moſt luxuriant crops ever remembered. The markets, however, continue high. The ſtock of cattle had been, generally, far exhauſted laſt ſeaſon, the prices of lean cattle even high, and the abundance of fod-

der

der great. We cannot therefore expect that butchers meat will fall, ſo long as the weather continues open and fodder plenty. In the Edinburgh market, beef and mutton from 5d. to 7d. veal 10d. per lb. Fiſh have been ſcarce, but the herrings are now caught in the Frith in great plenty, and remarkably good. The cheapeſt has been 3d. per dozen.

THE Engliſh report ſtates, that the ſeaſon in the ſouthern parts of the kingdom, has ſtill, on the whole, continued favourable for preparing the land and putting in the wheat, much of which has now been ſown. On threſhing out the different crops of grain, though they, in general, turn out extremely good, in ſome places, eſpecially in the north, the produce has been found coarſer than uſual, particularly wheats and barleys. The ſtate of vegitation has continued ſuch as was ſcarcely ever remembered at this period of the autumn, and both the natural and artificial graſſes are unuſually abundant; but the prices of fat ſtock ſtill keep high. Lean ſtock is, however, every where lower; in ſome of the northern parts of the kingdom ſo much ſo, we are informed, as fifteen or twenty per cent.

LISTS.

MARRIAGES.

Sept. 26. George Davidſon, Eſq; Capt. Lieutenant of the 92d regiment, to Miſs Forſyth, daughter of the late Alexander Forſyth, Eſq.

Oct. 2. At Glaſgow, Mr George Elliot, Bookteller, Kelſo, to Miſs Margaret Hoome, daughter of John Hoome, Eſq, Collector of Exciſe.

8. At Falque, Thomas M'Donald, Eſq; to Miſs Mary Foulerton, only daughter of the deceaſed Thomas Foulerton of Gallery.

9. At Thurſton, Michael Riddel, Eſq; to Miſs Hunter, eldeſt daughter of Robert Hunter of Thurſton, Eſq;

10. Mr Claud Ruſſel, Accountant, to Miſs Euphemia Gilleſpie, daughter of the late Rev. Dr James Gilleſpie, Principal of St Mary's College, St Andrew's.

15. At Edinburgh, the Rev. Mr John Campbell, Miniſter of Kippin, to Miſs Jean Kinnear, daughter of the deceaſed Mr Thomas Kinnear, banker in Edinburgh.

16. At Glaſgow, Mr Alexander Walker, writer in Edinburgh, to Miſs Cheſſils Boſwell, daughter of John Boſwell, Eſq; writer in Glaſgow.

BIRTHS.

Oct. 2. Mrs Campbell, younger of Glenfalloch, a ſon.

3. Mrs Carmichael of Skirling, a daughter.

4. Hon. Mrs Spiers of Elderſlie, a daughter.

9. Mrs Juſtice of Juſtice-hall, a daughter.

16. Mrs Kinloch of Kinloch, a daughter.

17. Mrs Major Wallace, a ſon.

DEATHS.

At Bath, Alexander Gordon, of Bellmount, Tobago, Eſq.

Sept. 26. Mr James Hamilton, upholſterer in Edinburgh.

28. At his houſe, Edinburgh Caſtle, Benjamin Bartlet, Eſq; forty-eight years ſtore-keeper of that garriſon.

Oct. 1. At Kinnettles, Alexander Brown, Eſq; of Kincaldrum,

2. At Edinburgh, Mr Thomas Brown, merchant.

— At Edinburgh, Mr Joſeph Mack, of the Sheriff Clerk's Office.

3. At Grange houſe, James M'Mikin, Eſq; of Killantringan.

4. At Leith, Mr Alexander Sommervail, merchant.

— At the manſe of Symington, the Rev. Mr William Logan, miniſter of that pariſh.

— At Dunollie, Alexander M'Dougal, Eſq; of M'Dougal.

6. At Laverockbank, Mr Alexander Anderſon of Laverockbank.

10. At Edinburgh Caſtle, Major Stratton, commanding Royal Engineers, North Britain; and on the 13th, his eldeſt child, Miſs Sophia Stratton.

Haddington, Oct. 30.

Beſt Wheat, 35s. Barley, 26s. Oats, 17s. Peaſe, 17s. 6d. Beans, 17s. per boll.

Edinburgh, Oct. 26. Oat-meal, 1s. 2d. Bear-meal, 1s. Peaſe-meal, 10d.

PRICES OF STOCKS.

	Oct. 9	*Oct. 24*
Bank Stock	184¾	68⅝
3 per cent. red.	——	——
3 per cent. cont.	67⅝	69¼
4 per cent. cont.	—	86⅞
India Stock	212½	215½
Eng. Lot. Tic.	——	——
Iriſh Lot. Tic.	——	——